The Nation.

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The Week.

THE commendation of President Cleveland's course during the recent labor troubles by more than one Republican county convention is an evidence that the ancient bitterness of partisanship is steadily giving way. The Republicans of Jefferson County, Mo., endorsed the President "for his patriotic course in using the full power of the Government to at once suppress riot and anarchy." The Republicans of Dallas County, Texas, "endorsed the action of President Cleveland in maintaining public order and upholding national authority during the late disturbance in the city of Chicago." The Burlington *Hawkeye*, one of the most prominent Republican newspapers in Iowa, strongly urged the adoption of a like plank in the platform of its party at the recent State convention. This was a little too much for the sort of politicians who controlled the gathering, but the fact that such advice could be given by a party organ in one State, and that county conventions in two other States have pursued this course, shows to what an extent the Democratic President's course has met the approval of fair-minded Republicans.

Ex-Gov. Boies of Iowa is the first public man since Senator Davis to get over stage-fright about Labor and speak out like a man not afraid of shadows. His address before the State Democratic Convention at Des Moines on Thursday is worthy of particular commendation in these days of tongue-tied statesmen. The Republicans of Illinois met in State convention the week before, and though their chief city and the State itself had just barely escaped plunging into universal anarchy, they had not a word to say in condemnation of the criminals who had brought them into such deadly peril, nor in praise of the national executive who, by his prompt and fearless action, had rescued them from it. Gov. Boies did not mince his language, but plainly told the labor agitators that their strike meant simple revolution and anarchy, and was but "the incipient stage of civil war." With equal emphasis did he declare that the "sympathetic strike" must go, or else that the unions that encourage it and engage in it will be destroyed. It will be said that Mr. Boies uses such plainness of speech because he has no further political ambition. But if he had, there could be no surer way of furthering it than such manly affirmations. It is one of the delusions of our small-minded politicians that the people like trimmers and trucklers. But Hosea Biglow spoke for the American people when he said, "By Time, I *du* like a feller that ain't a Feared."

The Senate passed on Monday a bill against "alien anarchists." Severe measures are to be taken against them, to prevent their landing in this country, and to provide for their deportation if they are hardened enough to get ashore. Suspected alien anarchists are to be rigidly examined, "by pertinent questions," as to their "antecedents and political opinions," and if any of them confess to having bombs concealed about their persons, they are to be sternly sent back to the land of their nativity. It is well known that anarchists always speak the truth, otherwise it might be hard to make the law effective. We must say, however, that it would be simpler to make all alien anarchists wear a badge or some distinctive dress, so that they might be recognized on sight, and freed from all temptation to perjure themselves under cross-examination. But the law, as it is, will make all good citizens rejoice. France and Germany are having a terrible time passing laws against anarchists. But they have, unfortunately, to deal with their own subjects. If they were as happy as we in having no native anarchists, perhaps they could solve the whole question with a law as beautiful in its simplicity as the one our Senate has passed in a single session.

There is a deepening mystery about Senator Smith of New Jersey, and the Society for Psychical Research cannot too soon take hold of him. The phenomena of double consciousness were never more clearly marked. The public first began to suspect that there was a double when the Jersey Senator's speech on the income tax was made. His nearest friends at once saw that something had happened to the man they knew so well. For a time, the private-secretary theory was held, but those who knew the private secretary well were ready to make oath that he couldn't have written the speech either. This was puzzling enough, but what came after was positively stupefying. A man purporting to be Smith of New Jersey appeared before the Senate investigating committee and swore that he had not bought or sold, directly or indirectly, any sugar stock "since the beginning of this session of Congress." But another man, asserting that he was the same Senator, appeared later before the same committee and made oath that he had bought "a thousand shares of Sugar about last January." Which was the impostor Smith or the sleep-walking Smith? Again, on August 2 the real James Smith, jr., or at any rate a man who professed to be he, wrote to some of his Englewood constituents that he would not vote for the Wilson bill because "it would have made it impossible for at least 50 per cent. of the manufactories within the borders of our State to continue or resume operations." So much for the protectionist Smith; but the free-trade Smith took an inning on Monday and asserted that he was in favor of free sugar, raw and refined, and particularly in favor of free coal and iron ore, as the latter "would be a practical benefit to my State."

The Senate committee on Territories has reported favorably the House bills for the admission of New Mexico and Arizona as States, and apparently only a pressure of other matters will prevent the passage of the measures. New Mexico is still a half-foreign community, and Arizona has only about 63,000 people all told, but each is to be given as much power in the Senate as New York or Pennsylvania. Their admission will be a gross outrage upon the country, but each party thinks that it stands a chance of getting the two Senators from each of the new commonwealths, and nobody seems ready to make an effective protest.

The House of Representatives has succeeded in having the scandalous $1,000,000 item for extirpating the Russian thistle struck out of the appropriation for the Agricultural Department. It has not been so firm in resisting the extravagance of the Senate in the case of the river-and-harbor bill. This appropriation bill notoriously conceals more jobbery than any other, and is, therefore, a peculiar favorite with the Senate. After attempting to increase it a good deal more, this useful and conservative legislative body has finally compromised with the House by accepting an increase of about $2,000,000 over the sum originally fixed. While the total appropriation—about $11,500,000—is not extravagant measured by the standards of former years, the policy of the Senate in neutralizing the attempts of the House of Representatives to lessen the burden of taxation borne by the people is disgraceful. To veto measures that suffer such treatment in the Senate would be a popular course for the President to adopt.

The success of the Democratic ticket over the Republican-Populist fusion in

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the Alabama election on Monday is cause for rejoicing on the part of all good citizens. Kolb, the candidate of the "combine," is an unscrupulous demagogue, who deserved no support—least of all the endorsement of sound-money men in New England, as Senator Hoar and the members of the Home Market Club profess to be. The most interesting and significant feature of the election is the impetus which it has given to the breaking down of the race line in Southern politics. Both the Democrats and the fusionists have sought the support of the negroes, and this has been done openly and frankly. A large proportion of the colored men voted for Oates, and they did it upon a clear understanding as to the attitude of his party toward their race. This understanding was reached through some interesting correspondence between the presiding elder and a number of ministers of colored churches in Birmingham and vicinity on the one side, and representatives of the Democratic party on the other, and it has been endorsed by leading Democratic newspapers. The ministers complained that the law requiring equal accommodations for the two races on railroads had been a dead letter, and asked that it be enforced and that colored passengers be freed from the intrusion of convicts and other disreputable characters. They asked that "like punishment be given for like offences," pointing out that to send a negro to the penitentiary for larceny and to acquit a white man of murder is a license to crime, can result only in disorder, and is a constant menace to good order and the enforcement of the law. Pledging themselves at all times to do all in their power to enforce the law and maintain peace and order, they asked that their race be protected in their lives and persons, and in the exercise of their right to labor in any position for which their moral and mental capacities may fit them. In conclusion, they promised to stand by that man or party who would guarantee them these rights.

This communication was submitted to leading representatives of the Democratic party, including Mr. H. C. Tompkins, chairman of the State executive committee, who said in his reply:

"Of course I have no authority to speak for the party as a whole, but I know that the members of the executive committee, of which I am chairman, and the members of the party generally, believe that the negro race are entitled to those things which they ask in that communication, and that the laws giving them should be enforced; and if it is necessary to enforce them to enact new laws, then I know the Democratic party will pass them. I have no hesitation in pledging you to use whatever influence I may possess in securing to them their full rights before the law, and in seeing that the people of that race are protected in their lives and persons, in all their rights before the law, and in the exercise of their right to labor in whatever occupation they may be employed."

It should not escape notice that this movement toward better relations between the two races in a Southern State follows the repeal of the federal election laws.

The Democrats in Tennessee are found to have lost ground in last week's State election for judges of the Supreme Court, to such an extent that the Republicans ought to have carried the day. But the Republicans also lost ground in their strongholds, so that the Democrats retain control. This is really an ideal result. The Democrats ought to suffer everywhere for the incompetency displayed by the party in Congress. On the other hand, the Republicans of Tennessee ought to be punished for "fusing" with the Populists, and endorsing as the candidate of the latter party a man whose only distinction is that he voted for the salary grab in Congress twenty years ago, and held on to the money in the face of public indignation.

The small vote cast shows the deterrent effect of a poll-tax. The law requires the presentation of a poll-tax receipt before a man can cast his ballot, and a Nashville paper pointed out the other day that, while there were about 16,000 registered voters in that county, the number who had paid the tax was small. The intention was to diminish the negro vote, but it is found that a large proportion of the whites will not pay the tax. Then there is always a chance that some political manager may suddenly turn up just before election day with a pile of money and pay poll-taxes by the thousands, on the agreement that the voters thus favored will support his side. This is the game which Mahone played on the Democrats of Virginia, and they were glad enough to abolish the system as soon as they recovered control of the State. The theory that a man should pay at least as much as a poll-tax towards the support of the Government as a prerequisite to having his say in deciding its character sounds all right, but in practice it generally works to the advantage of corruptionists.

The Michigan Republicans have made a strong bid for the silver vote. A minority of the committee on resolutions reported in favor of free coinage at the ratio of 16 to 1, and although this proposition was rejected, a plank was adopted which "recognizes the so-called silver question as one of the paramount issues of the day," declares that the Republican party is "the only party that can give a wise and adequate solution of the problem," and pledges that party in Michigan to "use every effort in its power to restore silver to its historic position in the United States as a money metal"—whatever that may mean. It is explained that this pledge is made "in the belief that permanent prosperity will not be assured or justice done until silver takes its place side by side with gold as one of the two great money metals of the world." The only thing plain about such a deliverance is, that the framers of the platform are ready for any compromise with the silver men which promises to help the party. It is in the sharpest possible contrast with the previous clear and straightforward declaration of the Wisconsin Republicans for sound money.

It is discouraging to learn that the committee on State prisons, in the New York Constitutional Convention, has decided to report favorably an amendment to the Constitution prepared by the representatives of the labor-unions for the purpose of preventing the employment of convicts at remunerative work. This amendment, which is entitled by the New York *Tribune* an amendment "to protect honest labor," directs the Legislature to provide for "the occupation and employment" of convicts, but forbids any convict to work "at any trade, industry, or occupation wherein or whereby his work or the product or profit of the work shall be farmed out, contracted, given, or sold to any person, firm, association, or corporation." Exception is made in the case of work done for, or goods disposed of to, the State or any subdivision thereof, or any public institution. It is quite consistent with the theory of protection to support such a measure as this upon the ground that it will prevent the competition of criminals in industries practised by honest workingmen; but it would be more consistent if the exception were not made. It is perfectly clear that if the State and all its subdivisions and all public institutions were prohibited altogether from employing the labor or buying the products of convicts, they would have to hire honest men and buy the products of honest labor. It is equally clear that, by excluding the competition of convicts in this way, the wages of free labor would be increased. The exception is therefore inconsistent with the theory of the amendment and with the theory of protection, and should be stricken out. If we held to the protection theory, like the *Tribune*, we should insist that no convict should lift a finger at any trade, or do a stroke of work for himself or any one else. Let them be forbidden to wash their own clothes or clean their own cells, thus giving honest washerwomen a chance to practise their laborious but commendable art. Let honest trade-unionists be hired, at regular union wages, to do the baking and the cooking, and to make the shoes and the clothing for the whole of our prison population. The right to labor is a sacred right, and no convict should be permit-

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ted to exercise it so long as any freeman can be found to take his place.

The *Financial Chronicle* publishes a table of Government receipts and disbursements for each month since January 1, 1894, and for the corresponding period of 1893, which tend to show that the corner of the bad times has been turned and that we may fairly look for a gain, from this time forward, both in total receipts and in the gold balance. The receipts for July were $35,697,000, and the disbursements $37,590,000, showing an apparent deficit on the month of about $2,000,000. But the July interest payment of $7,000,000 came in that month, while the average interest payment is only $2,500,000 per month. If we consider the latter the amount fairly chargeable to the July disbursements, there is a surplus of $2,621,000 for the month. This is in part due to unusually large withdrawals of distilled spirits from bonded warehouse—a condition which is likely to continue, however, during the present month. The *Chronicle* thinks that we are likely to import gold during the next few months. Certainly there is nothing that London could more easily spare, the Bank of England holding at the close of last week over $190,000,000 of that metal—a sum quite unprecedented in its annals.

A very remarkable and interesting event happened on Monday, when, for the first time in economic history, the price of corn on the New York market rose above the price of wheat. The significance of this event becomes more striking, and its economic meaning plainer, when it is recalled that throughout our entire industrial history, until the recent vast extension of wheat culture, the price of wheat averaged double that of corn. Moreover, while wheat sells now for barely half the price it reached as recently as 1891, corn is ruling well above the level of such years as 1878 and 1879, when the paper inflation premium on prices for the first time vanished. Nor is this difference due alone to possible damage to this season's crop, for at least 600,000,000 bushels could be deducted from the Government's latest estimate, and still leave a yield of corn as large as that of 1878. It scarcely needs demonstration to make clear that if silver demonetization had broken the price of wheat, the present advance in corn, even with the undoubted speculative exaggerations, would have been wholly impossible.

While we are in the thick of our fight against the protectionists, it is encouraging to learn that they have been overthrown in New South Wales. This probably indicates a return by that colony to its time-honored policy of free trade. We say probably, for although sixty-five free-traders have been returned to Parliament and only forty protectionists, there are twenty labor representatives—a sufficient number to make trouble; yet as they numbered thirty-three in the last Parliament they are not so likely to be courted by the politicians. Indeed, it is highly to the credit of Sir Henry Parkes that, after he was driven from office, he declined to form any coalition with the labor faction, but informed the Government that he should support it on all questions except protection. The victory of the free-traders appears to be more complete if we bear in mind that the new Parliament contains but 125 members instead of 141. Had the diminution been evenly distributed, each of the parties would have lost eight members. As it is, the gain of the free-trade party is not three, but eleven members. According to precedent a certain number of the labor representatives are sure to vote with the free-traders. In addition to the relief of trade, Sir Henry Parkes's policy embraces federation of the Australian colonies, retrenchment, and land settlement. To accomplish federation will be as difficult as it was to unite our colonies after the Revolution, but the free-trade victory will enable Sir Henry Parkes to offer the abolition of intercolonial duties, which is of course of the first importance.

Apropos of the talk of an income tax in France, Paul Leroy-Beaulieu recalls a saying of Saint-Simon which legislators in England and this country who are boasting that they have got their hands on the throats of rich men at last, would do well to consider. We can easily imagine, said Saint-Simon, what grief it would cause France if the King and all the royal family, the ministers, the marshals, and the prefects should suddenly die. Yet how short a time, after all, would it take the country to recover from such a blow. But suppose a plague should carry off 1,000 of the leading manufacturers, as many of the chief merchants, an equal number of the great land-owners, and the first men in all the professions: it would take a half-century for the nation to regain the ground lost by such a calamity. In the same way, proportionately, any law which tends to fine successful men for their success and to discourage the higher business and professional talents by taxing them, is a crippling of the productive energy of a country. This is especially the case when an animus like that which manifests itself against enemies of the public welfare is put into legislation against the rich. If the hatred of his kind is to be added to discriminating taxes on the rich man, the incentives to the accumulation of wealth will be enormously diminished, and the prayer of Agur, "Give me neither poverty nor riches," will become popular. If granted, it might bring more individual content in certain cases, but it would fatally lessen the chances of millions to earn their daily bread, which now comes to them in industries that would be impossible but for great stores of wealth.

No great addition to our knowledge of anarchist psychology was made by the judicial examination of Caserio. The mental history of Carnot's assassin appears to have been not essentially different from that of Vaillant or the Spaniards, Pallas and Salvador. Simple-hearted and ill-balanced natures, generally with a screw loose somewhere in their family history, they go on peaceably and harmlessly enough till they happen to fall in with the doctrine that the existing social order is unspeakably bad and incurably corrupt and ought to be destroyed. This view takes complete possession of them. They hear with joy of the exploits of dynamiters, as of heroic reformers, and come themselves to fling a bomb or wield a dagger with the conviction that they are true servants of humanity. Now the existence of such natures in great numbers must be recognized, along with the fact that they put a new and heavy responsibility upon all who discuss questions of social reform in public. With these powder-barrels standing by uncovered, no man ought to go carelessly dropping sparks, in the shape of vague assertions that society is unjust and that a better order is possible through some kind of a struggle not specified.

To be specific ourselves, the sort of thing to be condemned as a needless provocation to anarchy is exemplified in Mr. Howells's article in the August *Harper's*. In it he turns wholly aside from the main purpose and interest of his subject to speak of his "dream of a truer social order," and to assert that there is a "struggle now at hand" to free the world from "industrial slavery" and "the infinitely crueller and stupider vanity and luxury bred of it" than was bred by "chattel slavery." Such remarks can only be considered as inflammatory—we speak of their effect, not of their intention. If a man has anything serious and reasonable to say about such subjects, let him say it in a fashion that can be met by straightforward argument. Rational presentation of socialistic views is harmless beside these vague appeals to passion. We do not suppose that Mr. Howells's 'Altruria' has conveyed any anti-social impulse, or any clear idea whatever, to any of his readers. But what he and all who write for the public ought to understand is, that to inflame the passions of the weak-minded by such utterances as we have cited, with no attempt to justify them, is to assume the very gravest responsibility.

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PRAISE TO WHOM PRAISE IS DUE.

THE circular addressed by President Fish of the Illinois Central Railroad to the employees of that corporation, which has just been published, will be read with gratification by every conservative citizen. Mr. Fish states that, with few exceptions, the employees of the company remained faithful to their obligations. They performed their duties without flinching, and exhibited a coolness, steadiness, and intrepidity in trying situations which merit the highest praise. For their resolute and efficient efforts to overcome the malignant violence of the mob, and for their extraordinary exertions put forth in the face of great difficulties to protect the property in their charge, President Fish expresses, in behalf of his company, his heartfelt thanks. In this sentiment the community at large may properly join.

For it should not be forgotten what loyalty and fidelity signify under such conditions as existed at the time of the Chicago riots. It is altogether natural and altogether right that men dependent upon their daily labor for their daily bread should be united by the strongest bond of sympathy. Any increase that they can gain in wages means for those who are not vicious a positive increase in the comforts of their homes: better food, better sanitary conditions, better medical attendance, better clothing, more books, more of the "sweetness and light" which outweigh most material comforts. Nor is it in the least to be wondered at if men of this class believe that such gains are to be made only by concerted action on their part. The very atmosphere in this country is permeated with the fallacy of protection. American workmen have been brought up to believe that their comparatively high wages have been due to the imposition of taxes by Congress. They unquestionably believe that this beneficent governmental power has been utilized by the rich men of the country for their own benefit, and Heaven knows there has been ground enough for their belief. A struggle for higher wages, therefore, enlists the heart of every workingman, and neutrality in such a struggle is felt to be a kind of treachery. To incur the odium involved in defeating the purposes of strikers involves no small degree of courage. When this odium is deliberately incurred from the conviction that the methods of strikers are prejudicial to the common welfare, we have a display of patriotism in its most genuine form.

But it is not only unpopularity that threatens these men who have risen superior to the prejudices of their class. Many of them incur danger, as is forcibly set forth in the following extract from the *American Architect and Building News*:

"Few persons outside the ranks of certain trades realize the force of the appeal to fear which Debs and his like bring to bear on those whom they wish to subject. The temper in which the ringleaders, encouraged by official apathy or sympathy, were disposed to deal with those who resisted their dictation, is sufficiently shown by the circular placarded about the Chicago stock yards, denouncing the men who returned to their work as 'scabs,' and calling upon all persons to 'treat them as such,' accompanied by other posters, explaining the latter expression by advocating that all 'scabs' should be immediately assassinated. We, who read of such things in the newspapers with mild deprecation, need, in order to appreciate the resolution required by the faithful engineers and firemen, to imagine the fences around our houses and offices adorned with placards, officially signed by persons intimately connected with the Governor of the State and the executive department of the city, 'branding' us as 'scabs,' and fiercely urging the public to 'treat us as such,' explained by others representing us hanging to lamp-posts, and inviting all persons out of employment to join at once in carrying out this amiable suggestion. If, in connection with these incidents, we were to miss, at frequent intervals, our associates in business from their accustomed places, a blood-stain at their doors indicating what had become of them, we must acknowledge that we should be strongly tempted to close our offices for a time; and that to go on with our work, simply to fulfil our engagements with our clients, would require a moral and physical courage on which we might justly plume ourselves for the rest of our days. Yet this is just what the men have done who have remained at work during the furious reign of Debs and Sovereign; and, modest as they suppose to be their part in the history of this republic, the country owes them a debt of gratitude which it can never repay. Years hence, when Americans can earn an honest living in their own way, without being 'branded,' or 'treated as such,' at the dictation of any despot, the brave engineers of our Western railroads will, we hope, be honored as they deserve."

This is well and eloquently put; nor is it at all too strongly stated. We are glad that President Fish has taken the opportunity to express this feeling in behalf of the great corporation which he represents, and we are especially pleased to see that he also declares that "the public authorities in every county and town along the Illinois Central Railroad, almost without exception, early saw the imbecility and wickedness of the movement which had been set on foot." Such expressions on the part of the managers of our railroad corporations tend to promote good feeling and to remove unreasonable prejudices. We are of opinion that these managers might, with the approval of the stockholders, go somewhat further, and add to a "vote of thanks" some more substantial recognition of faithful service. We do not believe that men should be paid for patriotism or rewarded for doing their duty. But, as Mr. Fish says, the exertions in this case were extraordinary and the risks undergone exceptional. We do not believe that we misrepresent the stockholders in our railroads when we say that they would heartily approve the expenditure of a portion of their money in paying for services which have had an exceptional pecuniary value to them, and which have cost their employees exceptional sacrifices. We are quite satisfied that it is better to spend money in this way than in rate-wars, or even in political contributions. Possibly a corporation that should adopt such a policy might find itself so strengthened in the devotion of its servants and in the support of the best public opinion that it could defy blackmailing legislation. If the amount of the "corruption fund" could be applied in this way, some corporations might even find it a pecuniary gain. "There is that scattereth and yet increaseth."

A GAIN FOR CIVIL-SERVICE REFORM.

THE cause of civil-service reform, as administered by the Commission, has won an emphatic advance, and by an agency from which little was expected this year, namely, by action of the present Congress. It was accomplished in the quietest and most unobtrusive manner, and it may be questioned whether any considerable number of either the friends or the enemies of civil-service reform realize the magnitude of the achievement. The clerical force of the Civil-Service Commission is largely obtained by detailing clerks from the various departments, who then, under the orders of the Commission, perform such examining work as is needed for the service of the respective departments whence they are detailed. Such an arrangement was in every way unsatisfactory. The departments would naturally enough detail the least valuable members of their own forces, retaining the best for their own use, so that the Commission was obliged frequently to send back the detail. In the second place, the clerks naturally disliked to be removed from the regular line of promotion in their own departments and put where they had no such chance, and, knowing that, after all, their destiny was not in the hands of their new employers, they lacked one great incentive to faithful service. It might happen, and it has happened, that a department has, in its determination to be economical, informed a clerk that his services were no longer required after a certain date, while he was doing satisfactory work under the Civil-Service Commission, which was anxious to retain his services.

In order to remedy this uncomfortable state of things, a modest clause was inserted in an appropriation bill, simply putting the clerks detailed from the departments under the control of the Commission, and transferring the appropriation of their salaries from the departments to the Commission; also providing that, in future, estimates for their salaries should be submitted by the Commission and not by the respective departments.

This clause was instantly pounced upon by the spoilsmen in the House of Representatives. They were already armed with more than one amendment to the executive appropriations, tending to destroy, or at least to nullify, the Commission. Feeling only too sure that

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these would hardly be adopted in their own house, and certainly not in the Senate, they eagerly attacked the clause just described on the point of order as new legislation. The appropriation committee readily admitted as much, but deprecated insistence on the point of order, and urged the need of the appropriation. It was in vain; out the clause went, to the great satisfaction of those who at the same time were trying to strike from the bill all provision for the Commission. The Senate, however, took a different view of the matter. In that body new legislation may be, and frequently is, introduced by way of amendment. Accordingly, when the legislative, executive, and judicial appropriation bill was reported to the Senate, it contained a clause granting to the Civil-Service Commission a force of thirty-six clerks of its own, duly classified, in place of detailing an equal number from the departments, with an appropriation therefor of $52,000; providing also that the Commissioners might transfer to their own rolls any of the detailed department clerks who had proved useful as examiners.

It will be seen at once how much such a provision increases the efficiency of the Commission and the freedom and spirit of those in its employ. The amendment was agreed to in the Senate with no objections, and with scarcely a word of debate. When the bill came into conference there is no record of any difference of opinion; and when the conferees reported to the House of Representatives that a long string of Senate amendments had been agreed to, including amendment No. 32, assigning thirty-six clerks to the Civil-Service Commission, there was scarcely a member who distinguished this particular clause as part of the statement of the conferees. In the discussion of half an hour that followed, the provision was not mentioned, the report was agreed to, the bill was passed; it has since been signed by the President, and the Civil-Service Commission, by act of Congress, is put upon a firmer and more efficient basis than it ever has had since its establishment, by the quiet, intelligent, and vigilant work of its friends in the Senate, duly seconded by those in the House.

The gain of such legislation to the cause of civil-service reform is greater than might be supposed by one who merely read the text of the clause alluded to. Every step which enables the Commissioners to do their work more speedily, efficiently, and systematically makes the results of that work more completely felt by the people and by the departments. As long as they were to some extent dependent on those departments for the very machinery by which they worked, there was, there could not but be, a feeling of uneasiness and strain in all their operations. Now that they can work for themselves, and their force, small as it is, is their own, they will undertake more than ever to demonstrate that their service is needed by the country; that the more efficient it is, the more acceptable it will be, and that the institution which has outlived so many attacks from open and secret enemies, responds to a real demand from the country which no future Congress will dare to undervalue or reject.

OUTSIDE INTEREST IN THE ORIENTAL WAR.

THE merits of the quarrel between China and Japan remain for most people in this part of the world as obscure as they have been from the beginning. Nor is there, apparently, any preponderance of sympathy here for either party to the struggle. Yet it is evident that, since it was settled that the controversy was to be referred to the arbitrament of war, no little interest has been taken in the contest by those whose direct concern in it is hard to see.

A part of this interest comes, no doubt, from the old idea that the adversity of others means our own prosperity. In spite of the frequent demonstration of the commercial and financial solidarity of the world, the fancy still lurks in many minds that it would be a splendid thing for our trade to have some other nation or nations crippled by a war. "A general war in Europe" used, in fact, to be thought an infallible remedy for all our industrial ills, just as the Napoleonic wars used to be regarded by the squires of England as the *sine qua non* of English prosperity. This idea has survived, like so many other economic fallacies, long after the brains were out of it, and one hears people talking as if the war in the Orient might be a godsend to us and prove the turning of the tide of our financial depression. But commerce does not catch fish in troubled waters. Even the apparent stimulus which comes from placing orders for war materials will not inure to the benefit of this country, as England is in the way of getting pretty much all of the trade of that kind which the war may create. So that, as far as we are concerned, the idea that the troubles of others mean our own happiness is not likely to receive so much as surface confirmation. Substantial injury to our trade in the East is a far more probable result than apparent benefit to it.

Another way in which outside interest is shown in the struggle between Japan and China is perhaps more rational, though equally selfish. It springs from a desire to have a demonstration, at the expense of somebody else, of how modern men-of-war and armaments will stand the test of actual warfare. It is a fact, which disturbs the sleep of naval constructors, that none of them can appeal to actual experience to say how modern ironclads are going to behave in real battle. Every civilized nation has gone on building them and making them huger and (on paper) deadlier, but there has long been a nervous feeling that they might not act, in the water and enveloped in smoke and with torpedoes dashing at them, precisely according to theory. Since the battle of Lissa in 1866 there has been no satisfactory fighting test of the modern armored battle-ship, and naval experts have a consuming anxiety to see one. Some of our hotspur naval lieutenants are willing enough to make the test themselves, but nearly all others who take an interest in naval warfare would prefer to see other countries made the subject of experiment. What better *corpus vile* could be found than the half-civilized Japanese and Chinese?

There is, in fact, an added interest for the spectator in the fact that the contestants are but half-civilized. They have been playing at the game of civilized life for some years now, but there has been all the while on the part of Western nations a half-amused feeling that it was all a pretty farce. How will the veneer of civilization stand the friction of war? Will the laws of war be observed by powers that only lately and reluctantly have given their assent to the modern doctrines of international law? The atrocities in the naval battle already fought make this seem highly doubtful. Then, how are these men going to manage the arms of precision with which they have been hastily equipped? It is probable that their war-ships will be commanded by foreigners; but in the end, and if the struggle is as prolonged as now seems likely, the thing will come down to their own capacity to handle battle-ships and serve artillery. Have they the technical skill and the flexibility of nature to adapt themselves to these strange conditions?

Far more profitable is it for outsiders to give their attention, as some are doing, to the lesson in government which Japan is setting the world. As far as she is concerned, it is fairly evident that the war has been undertaken in a Jingo spirit, to divert attention from the difficulties at home. The Government has twice had a deadlock with Parliament in the past few months, and has twice dissolved it in the hope of getting a more manageable majority. The elections to the new Parliament are to be held this month, and the Government has obviously been willing to get a pliant majority by appealing to the war spirit and thus overshadowing the immense difficulties of domestic policy which confront the nation. It has borrowed representative institutions, as well as modern arms, from Western nations, and now it is letting go the former to use the latter. The energy and intellect of modern Japan, great as they are, are none too great to devote

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themselves exclusively to the arduous task of fitting their country for the peaceful assimilation and development of modern ideas, in government as well as in science. To give over this great work and plunge into war is little short of a sheer reversion to barbarism.

Certainly, if Japan is successful, the consequences will be important, not only in checking her republican development, but in seriously complicating her foreign relations. Success now undoubtedly means a foothold on the continent. Japan talks of reforms in the Corean government, but it is the Corean territory she has her eyes upon. She will take that and as much else as she can wrest from China, if strong enough. Nor will she omit to claim any of the Pacific islands which she thinks essential to her predominance. Once shown to be the aggressive and rising power of the East, she will not rest for a day under those treaties with other powers which limit her sovereignty. Victory in the war against China would mean speedy and serious complications with all those powers. But she will not be victorious if the superior numbers and the tougher fibre of her antagonist can be squarely brought into a contest with her more brilliant but less solid qualities.

THE FRENCH POPULISTS.

PARIS, July 16, 1894.

THE most far-reaching and important result of last year's Parliamentary elections in this country was not the almost entire annihilation of the monarchical parties and the consequent overwhelming victory of the Republicans; it was the choice of some fifty out-and-out socialists—miners, mechanics, agitators, and, in two or three cases, politicians of solid education, wide legislative experience, and remarkable oratorical gifts; M. Jean Jaurès, for example, being one of the most brilliant debaters on the floor of the House.

At first militant socialists held aloof from politics. A seat in the Chamber of Deputies seemed to have no attraction for them, while the mere mention of the aristocratic Senate put them in a rage. But this aversion for the Palais Bourbon and the Luxembourg gradually disappeared. The attention of the whole nation was so absorbed during the first years of the present republic in the bitter struggle over its foundation that socialism, which in one form or another has always had a following in France, was relegated to the background. But in 1888 a sufficient number of pronounced socialists, or so-called socialists, had succeeded in securing seats in the Chamber to warrant the formation of a "group." Though a score of names were found on its list, probably not more than a dozen were those of genuine socialists. The little company kept on growing, however, from year to year until it has become a factor that can no longer be neglected in parliamentary computations. For instance, to cite but one example out of many, the overthrow last May of the Casimir-Perier cabinet was due, in large measure, to this group of socialists.

How completely the early antipathy for public life has disappeared from among the socialists is strikingly shown by the fact that "Citizen" Thivier, the peasant Deputy who attends the sittings of the Chamber attired in the traditional blouse of his class, did not hesitate recently to stand for the much-vilified Senate—the first instance, I believe, of a socialist taking this step. He even offered as a bait for votes to add wooden shoes to his blouse if elected. Another example of this change of front was seen when M. Floquet came forward for a seat in the same body. On this occasion the socialist delegates in the college pronounced themselves almost to a man in favor of sending up their friends to the Upper House.

The following extract from a letter of M. Toussaint, one of the Paris workingmen Deputies, gives the reason why the Socialists now desire to enter Parliament:

"We know full well," he writes me, "that none of our demands will be acted upon by the present Chamber. Consequently our rôle consists in producing in the Chamber and in the country the greatest possible amount of agitation, by which means we hope to awaken the masses and convince workingmen that, in the struggle for emancipation, they can count on themselves alone; that it is only by grouping ourselves into societies and clubs for the study of social questions that we shall be able finally to form an organization solid enough to wrench from the capitalist class those privileges which it will not abandon unless forced to do so. But, in order that the economic revolution for which we are preparing the way may be durable, it must find acceptance in men's minds. This is the difficult task to which our Deputies are addressing themselves with all the energy they possess."

M. Jules Guesde, one of the boldest and most extravagant of the "revolutionary socialist" Deputies, a thorough-going advocate of "propagande par le fait," thus expressed the same idea in a recent speech:

"Those who count on the socialist Deputies for the triumph of our ideas will be disappointed. We do not intend to ask the Chamber to really carry out our programme. We shall not waste time in trying to convert our colleagues. It suffices us to combat them. It is the country we are laboring to bring over to our ideas. We shall call upon the nation to accomplish, by its own efforts, the social revolution. We look upon Parliament simply as a means for propagandism. It furnishes us our tribune. It is a new instrument of publicity which has been placed at our disposal. Far from us the chimera that our social revolution can be brought about by parliamentary or constitutional measures. We make no distinction between legal and illegal action. We enjoy the benefit of being able to have recourse to one or the other, according to circumstances."

And this programme is being followed to the letter, and even with considerable success. The socialist Deputies have provoked during the past year several general debates and won one or two moral victories. They have also called public attention to their cause by the introduction of various bills, none of which, however, has passed. One of these, fathered by M. Goblet, has to do with mines and miners, and its capital clause, which will kill it, declares that if a strike continues beyond a certain period, the State may step in and withdraw the concession without indemnifying the company. The object of a second measure, which originates with M. Jaurès, is to put an end to the complaints of the agricultural classes, whom the socialists are now exerting every nerve to bring over, about the competition caused by foreign corn. This desideratum is to be attained by the State assuming the monopoly of the buying and selling of this import. Thus, according to the project, the selling price will be kept constant whatever the purchasing price may be.

It may be well to describe now, briefly, the nature of the organization of this Socialist, or Workingmen's party, as the leaders prefer to call it. Its origin is the famous International Association of the epoch of the Second Empire, though its present form is the result of many congresses held in the various capitals of Europe during the past twenty-five or thirty years. M. Victor Dejeante, a hat-maker, who represents one of the Paris districts in the Chamber of Deputies, has kindly furnished me a description of the organization of this body, from which it appears that the party is made up of "regional federations." Each federation has its headquarters in the city which is the acknowledged industrial centre of the surrounding country. Correspondence between the various federations is carried on through the general secretary of the party appointed by the federations themselves. There are two sorts of bodies in these federations—trade societies, and clubs devoted to the study of social questions. The members of the latter are generally members, also, of the former, so that the ideas prevailing in the clubs are spread among the real workingmen. When election day comes round, these clubs are easily converted into election committees that aid in every possible way the triumph of the labor candidates at the polls. The Workingmen's party is thus exceedingly well organized for conducting a political campaign, and as none of the other parties knows what organization is, at least in the American sense, this may go far to explain the success of the socialists last year at the ballot-boxes.

Now a word about the Workingmen's platform. The "legislative programme" adopted and revised at several congresses contains, among a long list of whereases, the following: "The emancipation of the laboring classes can be brought about only through their own efforts"; "The subjection of labor to capital is the source of all political, moral, and material servitude; hence the economic enfranchisement of labor is the principal aim to which every political movement should be subordinated"; "The emancipation of labor is not simply a local or national problem, but, on the contrary, interests the working classes of all so-called civilized countries." Whence the four following resolutions: "The final aim of the party is the complete emancipation of all human beings without distinction of sex, race, or nationality." "This emancipation cannot be accomplished until the socialization of the materials of labor gives rise to a communistic state of society in which 'each, giving according to his strength, will receive according to his needs.'" "In order to attain this end, it is necessary, on account of class distinction, to keep up a political party in opposition to the various political parties of the middle and upper classes." "This enfranchisement can be secured only by revolutionary measures; hence the reason for seeking to gain a foothold in the public assemblies of town, province, and state, to be used for purposes of propogandism."

The platform consists of two parts—one purely political and the other economic. Under the first head are demanded the following reforms: Direct legislation by the people, the American town meeting and the Swiss *referendum* being in the minds of those who introduced this "plank"; the consideration, during the session in which they are introduced, of all bills emanating from workingmen's organizations; an elective judiciary; the gratuitous administration of justice; removal from the code of every discrimination unfavorable to the laboring classes, women, or natural children; the suppression of standing armies; the general arming of the people, and the development of

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local self-government. In economics, the platform calls for a complete system of free education; one day's rest in each week; a working-day of eight hours for adults, six for those under eighteen, no night work for children, and only six hours of night work for adults; workingmen's corporations to fix the scale of wages, with fines and imprisonment for employers who offer wages below this scale; the holding of employers responsible for labor accidents, and requiring them to pay compensation in proportion to the degree of injury done to their employees; equal pay for equal work, without distinction of sex; the prohibiting of employers from imposing fines or reducing wages in any way; the appointment of inspectors, chosen by the workingmen's corporations, whose duties shall be the examination of workshops, factories, mines, etc., in order to pass on the nature of the work, the hygienic arrangements, the precautions against accidents, etc.; the suppression of the public debt; the assumption by society of the support of the old and sick of the laboring classes; the abolition of all indirect taxation and the establishment of a single tax, of a decidedly progressive nature, on all property, both capital and revenue—with an exception, however, in favor of persons whose income does not exceed 3,000 francs a year; a return to the State of all inheritances in collateral line; and, as regards direct inheritances, a return to society of all above 20,000 francs.

The Republicans in Parliament have not been slow, especially during more recent years, in trying to check the advance of socialism by forestalling the demands of the leaders. It cannot be denied that the Third Republic has already done a good deal to ameliorate the condition of the French laboring classes. Some of these innovations were pointed out by Advocate-General Sarrut in his speech before the Paris Court of Appeals at its annual opening meeting in October, 1890.* The fact of such a personage selecting such a subject for his discourse on such an occasion is significant in itself. But M. Sarrut did not exhaust the list, and new measures of a similar kind have been added since he spoke. The establishment of hundreds, perhaps it would be more correct to say thousands, of free schools; of popular savings banks, benevolent societies, pension funds; the passing of laws for the protection of women and children employed in factories and of employees in general against accidents; the appointment by the minister of commerce of a Superior Council on Labor, composed of well-known specialists whose duties are the study of labor problems, and by the Chamber of Deputies of two standing committees of thirty-three members each, empowered to examine and report bills on this same subject—such are some of the more prominent acts of the Government and Parliament in their efforts to satisfy the demands of the French Populists.

But in their attempt to check "the socialistic endosmosis," as M. Yves Guyot describes the tendency I have been dwelling on, the Republicans do not confine themselves to legislative bills and lyceum discussions. They have long been keeping up a heavy fire of hot shot from the hustings, the printing-presses, and the newspapers. "To count upon Revolutionary Collectivism bringing about social progress," says one of their organs, "would be like expecting hail to ripen the harvest, or hate to produce fraternal union, or intestine war to increase the strength and happiness of a nation." Whereupon the French Populists reply in the words of M. de Rémusat: "No tradition possesses absolute and definitive authority; a step in advance is always possible in everything"; or in these of Heine: "We have for eighteen hundred years been giving Cæsar far too much; what remains shall now be for us."

THEODORE STANTON.

* 'L'Œuvre Législative de la Troisième République dans le Domaine des Questions Sociales.' Paris: Née.

MT. MONADNOCK AND BEN NEVIS.—I.

ENGLAND, July, 1894.

AFTER reading books and special articles, after poring over maps and sections of foreign lands in the effort to compare them justly with one's home country, it is a rare pleasure to stand on their hills and see the original "copy" of the books and maps outspread to the horizon. So it has been in the last month, in a comparison that I have sought to draw between the geography of our New England plateau and that of the Scotch Highlands. The comparison is not so much concerned with area or height as with geographical development, in which the two regions resemble each other somewhat closely. Following various students of the question at home, of whom Prof. Emerson of Amherst was the earliest, it is now generally understood that our New England upland is an old mountain region, once rising to great heights, as is indicated by the extreme distortion of its rocks; that its latest period of mountain growth is nevertheless so long past as to have allowed the destructive forces of the atmosphere to wear the mountains down to a lowland of moderate relief close to sea level—to a *peneplain*, as I should term it; and that only after the broad uplifting of this lowland to a gently slanting upland were the present valleys excavated in it. The lowland was not worn down perfectly smooth by any means. Remnant mountains rose above it, for they still surmount the upland. The type of such remnants of the earlier cycle of erosion may be found in Mt. Monadnock, a grand conical mass in southwestern New Hampshire, rising about sixteen hundred feet above the plateau platform, which is there another sixteen hundred feet above the sea. Indeed, I hope that other writers may follow the example of Messrs. Hayes and Campbell in their recent admirable account of the Southern Appalachians, and employ Monadnock as the generic term for all such residual mountains that rise over uplifted plateaus of denudation. The White Mountains appear to be simply a cluster of Monadnocks, preserved by some peculiarity of structure or drainage not yet fully explained.

The valleys that have been eroded in the New England upland since its slanting elevation follow a simple law. They are shallow near the coast, where the uplift was small; they deepen inland, where the uplift was greater. Indeed, it is largely from this variation in the depth of the valleys that the unequal uplift of the old lowland to a slanting upland is determined. The valleys are still narrow where the rocks are resistant; but they are already broad where the rocks are relatively weak. The Connecticut and its branches illustrate all these features. Near Long Island Sound, the river has incised its valley only one or two hundred feet beneath the upland; in northern Massachusetts it is fully a thousand feet beneath the plateaus east and west. The Deerfield River, entering the Connecticut from the Hoosac tunnel district, runs in a deep and narrow valley—deep, because cut in a high upland; narrow, because the crystalline rocks there are so resistant that there has not yet been time for the valley to widen greatly. The Quinipiac, entering the Sound at New Haven, drains a broad and relatively shallow valley—broad, because the red sandstones there are comparatively weak and have already been greatly consumed; shallow, because near the shore the upland has only a moderate elevation.

The rolling upland, with its scattered or grouped Monadnocks, and its broad or narrow, deep or shallow, valleys, has been glaciated since its present form was essentially assumed; but to this peculiar episode in its history we owe many of its smaller features, such as the lakes and gravel-beds, especially in the valleys and lowlands. The region now stands somewhat lower than when its valleys were cut out, as is known because the mouths of the valleys are drowned near the coast, forming estuaries so well shown in the Thames from Norwich to New London, or bays like Narragansett; but the region has risen a little since the ice was on it, for the gravel terraces around the coast rise somewhat above present sea-level.

Now, with a considerable exception regarding the evenness of the upland, all these features are found in Scotland, and with remarkable distinctness. During a week's excursion in the Highlands and along the western coast, it was my good fortune to see on the ground and under most hospitable and skilful guidance the classical examples of mountain structure, of denudation, of glacial action, and of old sea margins for which Scotland is famous to geologists and geographers all over the world. They constantly recall examples of home structures and forms, yet always with a strong and interesting foreign flavor. They exemplify at every point that a knowledge of home geography is the beginning of the appreciation of foreign countries. The likenesses to home examples are often well marked, but the contrasts are always entertaining and instructive. From the moment of stepping on the landing-stage at Liverpool, where the party from the steamer were silently awaited by the runners of various railways, each one labelled but speaking no word until spoken to, the likenesses and contrasts began, and the lively procession is still marching by. On the way to Edinburgh, I stopped a couple of hours at Appleby in the vale of Eden, with the mountains of the Lake District on the west, and the bold escarpment of the Pennine chain on the east; this being in the hope that an east wind might blow me at least a good turn, and form the peculiar isolated cloud, known there as the Helm bar, in a great roll of the air current west of the escarpment. The day, however, was fair and the wind was the prevalent southwester, in deference to which many of the trees were growing one-sided. There was no Helm bar, but floating *cumuli* threw climbing shadows over the mountain slope in truly homelike fashion. Moreover, the floor of the valley was rolling with drumlins—great whale-backed hills of glacial drift, familiar all about Boston, where they make the islands in the harbor and many of the hills on the land; but over the hills at Appleby rose the skylarks with eager song, and they have no match at home. Then, like Lochinvar, a run over the border, but unhappily alone; through the bare hills of the southern uplands of Scotland, with their long even slopes, bright with grass or dark with heather; across the open lowlands with their farms and collieries; and at last the spans of the great Forth bridge rose over the treed ridges as the train neared Edinburgh in the long northern twilight.

The Scottish capital gave me a most pleasant meeting with three leaders in their respective subjects: Prof. James Geikie, at work on a

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new edition of his 'Great Ice Age'; Dr. Alexander Buchan, by whom the meteorological records of the *Challenger* expedition were discussed, and from whom we shall next have an essay on ocean temperatures and currents; and Mr. J. G. Bartholomew, chief of the Edinburgh Geographical Institute, under whose energetic direction this great publishing house produces about five million copies of maps of many kinds yearly. The office of the Geological Survey of Scotland was also visited in final preparation for the excursion into the Highlands; for unfortunately the publications of the British surveys are rarely found complete at home outside of the governmental bureaus in Washington. Very few copies of the British geological reports and maps are presented to libraries in foreign countries, and the price at which they are sold practically forbids their purchase. The maps are, moreover, colored by hand, so that every copy is expensive; while ours are lithographed, and "additional copies" are of only nominal cost —perhaps three or four cents apiece. The policy of her Majesty's Stationer's Office is in all these matters just opposite to what prevails in our bureaus in Washington. With us the intention is to give as wide a distribution as possible, either free or at a very moderate cost, to the maps and reports whose expensive preparation is warranted only by their general use. The British practice almost seals up the costly results of the geological surveys, and thus greatly diminishes the profit resulting from them. It was a satisfaction to learn that this opinion, formed at home, was shared and emphatically expressed over here.

Distances are so short on the British Isles that the morning steamers leaving Glasgow for the sea lochs on the west coast are overtaken at the mouth of the Firth of Clyde by the early trains from Edinburgh, thus saving a stop over night in the smoky manufacturing rival of the capital. The run through the Kyles of Bute quickly introduces the traveller to the delightful combination of steep highlands and deep narrow waters that characterizes this beautiful part of the world. The Crinan Canal cuts off the long passage around the peninsula of Cantyre, and gives opportunity for a pleasant walk, if the day is by exception not rainy, while the little canal steamer passes up and down through the locks. A third steamer, waiting at the further end of the canal, runs up to Oban in the afternoon, and there most of the passengers disembark, to make the trip around Mull to Staffa the next day, and only the few go on through Loch Linnhe to Fort William at its head, although here the mountains are bolder than any below Oban, the view up Glen Coe from Ballachulish being especially striking. As the upper mountain slopes were much of this day obscured by clouds, a much humbler feature of the scenery attracted my attention. This was the "twenty five-foot beach," of peculiar interest in the sea lochs from its distinctness and its control of population. It is a mark of wave work when the sea stood higher on the land. There is a cliff from ten to thirty feet in height cut in the mountain side, with caves frequently indenting its level base, and a smooth gravelly or sandy slope stretching two or three hundred feet from the foot of the cliff to the present shore. Where streams from the glens entered quiet water, the beach spreads out into a delta. Where eddying currents carried the gravels outward from the old shore, the beach locally widens, recalling the much larger examples of this process on our coast in Cape Canaveral and its fellows further north. Where the mountains descend abruptly to an exposed coast, as on the promontories between the sea lochs, the gravelly waste from the land was washed away into deeper water by the strong waves, and only a ragged rocky bench remains, now taking the form of "skerries," or low ledgy islands, where the former wave action was especially violent.

It is not too much to say that nine-tenths of the scanty population of this region live according to the opportunity afforded by the gravelly beaches or the sandy deltas of this ancient sea margin. The roads often follow it for miles. The scattered cottages of the crofters are all set back close against the old sea cliff; their little crofts lie on the smooth bench in front, while their cattle and sheep are driven up to pasture on the steep mountain slopes above. There are no cottages on the upper slopes. Villages are strung along on the old beach, assuming a narrow linear form, like the towns along the banks of the Rhine in its gorge. On the deltas, or on the cuspate beaches that have been built outward by ancient currents, there are occasional castles or halls, with shady groves, grassy lawns, and all the elegances of high life, amid the poverty of the smaller folk, up and down the old shore line. The bare skerries support no one but the light-house-keepers; the slopes of the mountains leading down to the exposed headlands are desolate in the extreme. There are miles and miles of bolder coast, seen in a later part of my excursion, where not even a cottage is in sight; no tempting bench of cultivable land invites settlement there. It would be difficult to find a better illustration of the control exerted by past processes on present opportunities, either in their bidding or forbidding aspects.

W. M. D.

Correspondence.

MME. DE RIEDESEL ON THE FENTON CASE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Mme. de Riedesel, in her memoir, states that the wife and daughter of Capt. Fenton, a Royalist absentee living in England in the time of the Revolutionary war, were tarred and feathered by the rabble of Boston. In my work on the United States I have repeated her statement, as, Lord Mahon (Stanhope), in his 'History of England,' had done before me. In the report of a meeting of the Massachusetts Historical Society on January 11, 1894, Dr. Samuel A. Green, in reference to my work, discusses Mme. de Riedesel's story, and comes to the conclusion that it is baseless.

"This German Baroness," he says, "was a guileless woman, unused to the ways of the world—as crops out in her 'Letters and Journals,' etc.—and too readily believed improbable tales. She had never seen the seamy side of life, and her credulity was equalled only by her inexperience. Without doubt the story was told to her, and she jotted it down; but her authority in the matter is entitled to no more weight than specks of dust floating in the air."

I would very gladly cancel the passage if I could persuade myself that Dr. Green's view was right. The exact words of Mme. de Riedesel are:

"I had, during my residence at Bristol, in England, made the acquaintance of a Capt. Fenton, whom the Americans claimed at the beginning of the war, but who remained faithful to his sovereign, and refused to go to America. Upon this the infuriated rabble seized his wife, who was a most respectable woman, and a daughter of the age of fifteen, who was very beautiful, and stripped them both of their dresses, without regard to their moral worth, their beauty, and their delicacy; and after having besmeared them with tar, and covered them with feathers, drove them through the city. What had one not to fear from people maddened to that degree of hatred!" ('Letters and Memoirs,' pp. 196-97.)

In an earlier part of her Memoir, recounting her journey from Germany to America, the Baroness had said:

"I met in the house where I lived in Bristol a Capt. Fenton, whose wife had remained in Boston with a daughter of fourteen. He was a fond husband and a doting father, and begged me to take charge of some letters on my departure for America. On my arrival I learned that, on account of his long absence, Mrs. Fenton had been arrested and suffered much ill-treatment; but of this anon" (p. 74).

She does not say, nor was she specially called upon to say, from whom she had the story. She does not tell us whether she saw Mrs. and Miss Fenton at Boston. But, being acquainted with Capt. Fenton, and having taken letters for his wife and daughter, she is pretty sure to have made special inquiry about them. The date of the occurrence, as to which Dr. Green raises a question, is not given, but we must suppose that it was between the evacuation of Boston by the British army and the arrival of Mme. de Riedesel.

Mme. de Riedesel states that she was herself insulted by people of the baser sort at Boston; that the persons of her own sex were the worst; that they gazed at her with indignation, and spat when she passed near them. We can hardly reject her evidence in this case.

As a German, the wife of a commander of auxiliaries, Mme. de Riedesel little shared the passions of the civil war. I have, in fact, found in her Memoir only one spark of royalist emotion, and this was elicited by singing in her presence "God save good Washington and God damn the King," which must have pained her the more because she had been very well received by the royal family in England. When she is kindly treated by Americans, as she often is, she heartily acknowledges the kindness. Nothing can be warmer than her tribute to the generosity and chivalry of Gates and Schuyler. I see no indications of weak credulity in the Memoir. On the contrary, I should say that it was the work of a woman of sense, as well as the picture of a very attractive character and of rare conjugal affection. A woman who had followed a camp, and a motley camp such as that of Burgoyne, must surely have seen the seamy side of life. Indeed, she had seen not a little that was seamy on her travels before she joined the camp.

The silence of the Boston journals of that day, which Dr. Green proffers as negative evidence, seems natural enough. The incident was one which they would hardly like to chronicle. The negative evidence of the kindred of the Fentons in Boston, which Dr. Green also urges, will have more force than the silence of the journals, provided Dr. Green can tell us who the kindred are and what it is exactly that they say. No positive evidence is adduced by Dr. Green.

It appears from Dr. Green's paper that Capt. Fenton was an object of special odium as a noted Tory who had been expelled on account of his political proclivities from the Legislature of New Hampshire, had been afterwards arrested by order of the Provincial Congress, and was accused of having violated his parole, which bound him to take himself in the first instance to New York. The last circumstance seems to explain Mme. de Riedesel's otherwise

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unintelligible expression as to the Americans having "claimed" Capt. Fenton at the beginning of the war.

It was by an infuriated rabble, Mme. de Riedesel says, that the outrage was committed, and Dr. Green will hardly think that there is a limit to the excesses of which an infuriated rabble, even at Boston, can be guilty in a time of civil war. GOLDWIN SMITH.

TORONTO, July 21, 1894.

THE SILVER EVIL.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: People who think are at present becoming so impressed with the mischief of the so-called protective system fastened on the country by a greedy minority and now fighting desperately for its life, that it seems to me another equally potent cause of disaster is in danger of being momentarily neglected.

The country has been engaged for years in a gigantic silver speculation. We have attempted to "corner" the commodity by buying immense quantities and struggling to convert it into money at double its value by the power of Congressional fiat. Like most other attempted corners, this has failed, but the worst of the effects remain, and must remain till we retrace our steps. The millions of silver dug up on Western hillsides and now reburied in Eastern vaults, of itself merely involves a pecuniary loss which the country is rich enough to stand. But unfortunately we have borrowed upon it; that is, we have issued an overwhelming and redundant mass of silver certificates and notes "based" upon it, to which paper, though it possesses no value anywhere else, we have in effect given the legal-tender quality as against our own people.

Probably almost every one who addresses himself intelligently to this subject is familiar with the financial canon known to the world as the law of Gresham. It is the principle which assures us that in any country whose aggregate currency is redundant in quantity and composite in quality, the best will tend to disappear from circulation by either hoarding or exportation. Now the present currency of the United States includes eight different kinds, and is absurdly redundant in quantity. Notwithstanding the financial wisdom of backwoods conventions, it is probably two or three times more than is required by a people whose entire pecuniary transactions—95 per cent., as we are credibly told—are conducted by checks and credits.

Under these circumstances, no one need be surprised at the continued efflux of gold under any and all probable conditions of international credit and rates of exchange. It seems to me that Gresham's law is asserting itself as vigorously as can be reasonably expected. Gold and gold certificates have gone out of common use. Greenbacks redeemable in gold have followed suit. National bank-notes payable in greenbacks are no longer profitable, and are being steadily withdrawn. We have, in fact, a badly inflated silver paper currency, and no other, although as yet expressed in terms of gold. It continues to be so expressed because we know the Government can, and most of us believe it will, maintain this silver paper at par by purchasing it, when required, with gold borrowed for the purpose or wrung from the taxpayer. Every dollar of it represents simply a debt of the Government (*i. e.*, the taxpayers) to meet which there is nothing besides taxes and some thousands of tons of depreciated silver, for which there is no market, the demand being fully supplied from current production. We may as well accept the fact, than which few are more certain, that the world whom Congress cannot reach by law will continue to refuse this paper, and it must all be taken up with borrowed gold if the country is to maintain solvency. When that process shall have been seriously begun and honestly completed, and when Congress will let the people's industries alone and abandon its mischievous tendency to enact prosperity by statute, then we can look for nothing less than the most prosperous commerce and industry in a land so abounding with individual energy and natural resources.

Very respectfully yours,
I. J. WISTAR.

PHILADELPHIA, July 30, 1894.

TEMPERATURE AND VERTEBRÆ.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In Mr. Jordan's own 'Contributions to North American Ichthyology,' p. 307, in the genus *Oncorhynchus*, a Pacific salmon, *O. chouicha*, or quinnat salmon, is said to possess 66 vertebræ, and to often attain the length of 3 to 4 feet, and to have been known to attain a weight of 100 or more pounds. (This fish, by the way, should retain the specific name of *quinnat*, which everybody from Alaska to Greenland, almost, knows, rather than *chouicha*, a name changed from another name, which everybody does *not* know.) It is well known to eat up both the *old* and the *young* of its neighbor, *O. nerka*, a smaller species having only 64 vertebræ. The latter, in its struggle to get away from its more voracious neighbor, ascends the stream to its highest source. S.

GEORGIA, July, 1894.

[This note relates to objections urged by us (*Nation*, April 19) against acceptance of Prof. Jordan's theory of "temperature and vertebræ" in fishes. It was inspired by his assertion that, "as a rule, members of the same group having different numbers of vertebræ *do not* inhabit the same waters." As yet no evidence has, to our knowledge, been advanced against our statement that, of closely allied fishes, those making most use of the vertebra in the column, usually the more active and predaceous species, have the larger numbers of vertebræ, and that the differences correlate with habits and use instead of temperature and selection.

Our knowledge of the life histories of the Salmones is not at all complete. Our correspondent's note bears the inference that the species *nerka* (narka, 1764, nerka, 1774, nærka, 1784) is driven to the uppermost reaches of the streams by tchavitche. It may well be that to avoid the enemy the young are placed as far out of the way as possible, but early authorities say tchavitche, in the Kamtchatkan waters, is first to go up the streams in the yearly rush. Fishing for this species "begins about the middle of *May* and lasts six weeks." Nerka "is caught about the middle of June. . . . There are two things worth notice concerning it: the first of which is, that part go before to the heads of the rivers, as if they were sent out to examine them, where some of them are caught before the shoals appear at the mouths. The second is, that this fish is more plenty in such rivers as run out of lakes than others: nor does it live long in the former, but hastens directly into the latter; in the depths of which it lies till the beginning of August, at which time it comes nearer the shore, and tries to get into these rivers that communicate with the lakes." "Each kind of fish always ascends the rivers at the same time. In the month of August sometimes two, three, nay even four species come up at once; but each keeps separate from the other. The different species of those fishes which are here called red fish shall be mentioned in giving an account of the time when they come out of the sea into the rivers; it being remarked that they always observe the same order, the same species which comes out first one year continuing to do so the following. This the Kamtschadales find to be so certain, that they call their months by the name of the fish which are then caught. The largest and best of these fish, and which come first out of the sea, are called chavitsi."

Some writers hold that this last does not feed while in fresh water.

The generally recognized rules of priority would fix the specific name *tchavitche*, instead of quinnat, on the California salmon. The former is a vernacular word, nearly rendered by the spelling given. There are several forms of the word in literature: chavitsi, tchavitche, and tchovnitche, 1764, tschawitscha, 1766, tschabitscha and tschavitscho, 1774, tshawytscha, 1784, and chouicha, 1882. Quinnat, 1836, is said to be a vulgar name for various species, and to mean shining or glittering.—ED. NATION.]

SCIENTIFIC INDEXING.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In your kind notice of 'Drainage Channel and Waterway,' which I had the honor and pleasure to write, you speak of the work, in the *Nation* of July 5, page 11, as "an excellent book, with the most inadequate index that it has been our fate ever to find in any work on a technical subject." If an index of fourteen pages in agate type, two columns to the page, in a book of about 450 pages printed in small pica, containing more than two thousand references, with no subject or name omitted, is inadequate, will you kindly state what, in your opinion, would be an adequate index?

Yours very truly, G. P. BROWN.

766 WEST ADAMS STREET, CHICAGO, July 18, 1894.

[An index may be very full without being intelligently made. Our expression reflected, perhaps too strongly, our vexation at being baffled when we sought to find out about the rate of flow and volume of discharge of the new waterway, which we had seen in reading the book. Turning to the index, we found neither Velocity, Capacity, Volume, Flow, Cross-section, Depth, Width, Section, Slope, Inclination, Fall, Current, nor Channel. Discharge and Waterway were there, but with no reference to what we were in search of. We thought that such important subjects as these missing titles indicate should be traceable in an adequate index.—ED. NATION.]

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DECORUM IN BERLIN.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I beg to submit the following incident as an instance of the detail to which police authority may extend here in Berlin:

Wandering through a rather unfrequented part of the Thiergarten recently, I observed a decently clad fellow asleep on a shady bench; he was sitting sidewise, with one leg on one side and one on the other of the narrow bench, his head resting on his arm, while his arm was supported by the back of the bench. I had noticed nothing unseemly in his position, but a police officer, more observant than I, approached and felt apparently no hesitation in rousing the fellow up and directing him not to straddle the bench, but to take a proper position. The culprit quietly complied, and the big policeman walked on.

The incident is a trifling one and may go to confirm the fact that Berlin is well governed, but may it not serve as well to make us more contented with our own land? For though sometimes called on to submit to the caprice of an Irish officer "armed with a little brief authority," it is certain that the humblest of our citizens would not submit uncomplainingly to such a wanton interference with his happiness.

Very truly yours, C. G. Baldwin.

Berlin, July, 1894.

"BACK AND FORTH."

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Your learned correspondent "F. H." is probably correct in the statement that the use of the phrase "back and forth" is now confined to America, but it may be of interest to note that a precisely equivalent phrase, "back and forwards," is current in Ireland.

The Cornish "'foorth and back," the Devonshire "voar an' back," and the West Somerset "back and fore," all in the sense of 'wrong end to,' are perhaps only corruptions of "fore end back" or "back end fore."

Your correspondent's interpretation of the colloquial Hibernianism "to the back of" to mean 'immediately after,' falls in naturally with the quotation cited, viz.: "He made her drink a bumper, and another to the back of it." This meaning, however, does not seem to accord with general usage, for in the above phrase, as commonly heard in Ireland, the word "back" has its ordinary meaning of *support* or *reinforcement*, as in the sentence: "I am not afraid of Johnny, nor his big brother to the back of him." J. M.

Ithaca, N. Y., July 30, 1894.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The dialect illustrations under the above head in your issue of the 26th inst. seem to me to change the obvious meaning of the speaker in both cases by giving "and" where "end" was used. What I venture to think the woman said was, "'Ee 'ave 'is 'at on foorth eand back"; and did not the miner say, "I gnawed they pump wud na run fur 'ee 'ad they rockers in foorth eand back"?

Very respectfully, J. G. C.

July 30, 1894.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: "Back and forth" is given in Webster in the sense of to and fro. It may not appear in literature, but it has been used in all parts of New England for a hundred and fifty years, and undoubtedly longer—so generally that it could not have originated there. "Walking back and forth for a long time," "going back and forth continually," are common examples. In a letter of my great-grandfather, in 1760, I read: "Indians went back and forth [from New Hampshire]." Sometimes the phrase was varied by "forward and back," as "passing forward and back every day." P. J. F.

Clinton, Iowa, July 28, 1894.

Notes.

It must have seemed as if the English-speaking world was already in a fair way to be satisfied with dictionaries of the language, but still another has just been set on foot and makes an appeal for subscribers. 'The National Dictionary of English Language and Literature,' it will be called, and its aim is "to include all words and phrase-words found in English literature between 1360 A. D. and the present day," with the expectation of embracing "a large number of words of good authority or of common speech never before registered in any dictionary." It is to be "based on full indexes of several carefully selected authors, including Chaucer, Caxton, Elyot, North, Phil. Holland, Bacon, Pope, Johnson, Burke, Thackeray, Macaulay, and Ruskin." Date of authorship and exact references will accompany every quotation, as in the 'New English Dictionary.' The editor, Dr. C. A. M. Fennell, Barton Cottage, Cambridge, England, is but two years free from the great labor of the 'Stanford Dictionary of Anglicised Words and Phrases'—a work more apart from existing dictionaries than his new venture can be, but also less popular in character. The 'National Dictionary' will make three volumes at three guineas, if paid for in advance during the current year. Subscriptions should be sent to the editor.

Charles Scribner's Sons will shortly launch a subscription book, 'The Woman's Book,' consisting of chapters interesting to the sex contributed by many well-known writers, both male and female. There will be more than four hundred illustrations. The same firm have in press a new story, 'Marsena,' by Harold Frederic.

'A Story of Courage: Annals of the Georgetown Convent of the Visitation,' by George Parsons Lathrop, will be published by Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

Little, Brown & Co. will bring out 'Curb, Snaffle and Spur,' training for young men for the cavalry service, by Edward L. Anderson.

A new translation of Molière's works, by Miss K. P. Wormeley, the translator of Balzac, will bear the imprint of Roberts Bros.

T. Y. Crowell & Co. have issued 'The Footprints of the Jesuits,' by R. W. Thompson, ex-Secretary of the Navy.

Ginn & Co. will soon have ready 'Citizenship: A Book for Classes in Government,' by Julius H. Seelye, D.D., late President of Amherst College.

William Briggs, Toronto, has in preparation a book of verse, 'My Lattice,' by Frederic George Scott, a Canadian poet.

Wilson Nevens, Falmouth, Me., invites subscriptions to a genealogical record of the Nevens or Nevins families of New England, including those of Palmer and Gloucester, Mass., and of Pelham and Hollis, N. H.

'Quentin Durward,' in two volumes, is the latest of the Waverley Novels in the International Limited Edition (Boston: Estes & Lauriat; New York: Bryan, Taylor & Co.). Mr. Lang's task as preface-writer has visibly begun to pall upon him, and he has little to say except to rate 'Quentin Durward' with the very best work of Scott, and to supply some bibliographical and historical data. M. Lalauze furnishes the etched illustrations, with his usual academic grace and correctness.

Two more volumes have been added also to the Dent-Macmillan pocket "Temple Shakspere," viz., 'Love's Labour's Lost' and 'Much Ado about Nothing.' There is a charm about this series which bears prolonging.

The changes in the island of Nantucket have not been so great since 1882 that Mr. Edward K. Godfrey's "complete index and guide to this noted resort," just reissued by Lee & Shepard, Boston, is seriously out of date. The interval of time, however, might well have been improved in providing a table of contents and perfecting the index. There is much history and natural history in this volume, which is furnished with maps of the island and the town.

Two more numbers of the series "Artistes Célèbres" (Paris: Librairie de *l'Art*) are before us. That on 'Michiel van Mierevelt et son Gendre [Willem Jacobsz Delff],' by Henry Havard, is needlessly diffuse, and does relatively little to draw Mierevelt out of his "penumbra," by supplying fresh data from original research. Still, something has been done in this line, and there is a large series of examples of the work of this prolific portraitist, most of them engraved by his son-in-law Delff. Adrien Moureau's 'Antonio Canal, dit le Canaletto,' is equally expanded. A third of the hundred pages is given up to a preliminary sketch of Venetian life in the eighteenth century; a quarter describes the various phases of Venice embalmed in Canaletto's pictures; a sixth (the fourth and last chapter) deals with Canaletto's pupils and imitators; another sixth discusses his merits as painter and engraver; and the remaining twelve pages more than suffice to tell all that is known about his uneventful career. In short, the text seems designed chiefly to keep the full-page plates from crowding each other. They occupy on the average every other page, and give its principal value to the volume. The majority are from engravings after Canaletto's canvases, but there is a good sprinkling of his own skilful etchings, and one unpublished wash drawing. These examples, except the last, have been drawn from the National Library.

Prof. Rudolf Koegel, whose 'Althoch- und Altniederdeutsche Litteratur' forms one of the most valuable sections of the "Grundriss der Germanischen Philologie," has just published the first volume of a 'Geschichte der Deutschen Litteratur bis zum Ausgange des Mittelalters' (Strassburg: Trübner). It is safe to say that this compendium is destined to be the worthy successor of the works of Koberstein and Wachernagel. The present volume goes as far as the middle of the Karolingian epoch, and deals in a most comprehensive manner with the nature and development of ancient Germanic verse and prose. In contradistinction from Johann Kelle, with whose 'Geschichte der Deutschen Litteratur bis zur Mitte des elften Jahrhunderts' this volume in part coincides, Koegel does not confine himself to a consideration of the few literary fragments which have come down to our time, but tries also by a careful analysis of historical testimonies, by a searching study of archaic remnants in later literature, and through analogies with the literary development of other Germanic tribes, to reconstruct the earliest oral tradition of the German people. He succeeds in shedding light upon many doubtful

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points, especially in the history of the oldest hymnic poetry and of alliterative verse; and he presents, all things considered, the most complete picture of German literary origins which as yet has been given.

It is a rather discouraging sign of the times that the volume recently published by Dr. M. Felix Korum, Bishop of Trier, and entitled 'Wunder und Göttliche Gnadenerweise bei der Ausstellung des Heiligen Rockes zu Trier im Jahre 1891,' should have already passed into a fourth edition. The bishop does not wish his statements to be accepted on his own authority, but claims to give an "aktenmässige Darstellung," or documentary presentation, of the miracles wrought by the holy coat of Trier in 1891, and thus invests them with a seemingly scientific character. It is hardly necessary to add that these certificates, issued by obscure curates and country doctors, or by an episcopal commission of theologians and physicians, who have very strangely forgotten to sign their names to their reports, have no evidentiary value whatever. The diseases said to have been healed were nervous and hysterical affections, St. Vitus's dance, and a few cases of certain mild forms of lupus and tabes, which, as is well known, often disappear for months and even for years without the aid of medicine or miracles.

Dr. Korum has also published a pastoral letter denying the genuineness of the "holy seamless coat" of Argenteuil, and inviting the faithful to pay their devotions only to the "holy coat" of Trier. The same conclusion was reached by a French Benedictine Abbé Vonel, whose pamphlet threatened to produce in Argenteuil a serious depression of spirits and of trade, especially among the innkeepers, and was immediately suppressed by order of Monseigneur Richard, Archbishop of Paris. On the other hand, the ecclesiastical authorities of Argenteuil do not deny the genuineness of the relic at Trier, but only assert that it is an upper garment, whereas theirs is an under garment worn next to the skin, and therefore endowed with greater healing virtue than could possibly be possessed by a mere overcoat. The masses, however, seem to be scarcely affected by these mutual accusations and recriminations. This is the year for the "elevation" of the rival relic at Argenteuil, the gift of the Byzantine Empress Irene to Charlemagne, and already 500,000 pilgrims have flocked to the little town on the Seine where Héloïse took the veil after her separation from Abélard; and no one doubts that scores of miraculous cures will be recorded and in due time officially reported.

M. George Cogordan's 'Joseph de Maistre' is the latest issue in Hachette's "Les Grands Écrivains Français," and it is quite worthy of the volumes which have preceded it. The subject of the biography is a man whose influence on French thought has been larger than is commonly supposed, and it is this point which comes out clearly in M. Cogordan's work. An opponent of Rousseau, a corrector of Voltaire, a more serious Christian than Chateaubriand, De Maistre held views which events justified and proclaimed beliefs which have proved groundless. He believed Washington would never be built, for instance, and that Congress would never meet there; he was mistaken also in predicting the early disappearance of Protestantism; but he enunciated many sound political views which, at the time, were scouted, and which have triumphed since. M. Cogordan has been particularly happy in reproducing the living personality of De Maistre, with its many noble traits, and in analyzing his doctrines.

Prosper Mérimée forms the subject of a most readable and thoroughly interesting volume by M. Augustin Filon (Paris: Hachette & Cie.). M. Filon was fortunate enough to know the great writer personally and to be somewhat intimate with several of Mérimée's closest friends. Many letters, of a confidential character, have been intrusted to him, and these various materials have enabled him to give his readers a very living portrait of the author of 'Carmen' and 'Colomba.' M. Filon remains convinced that while it is possible that Mérimée's scepticism may have been partly assumed as far as love is concerned, it was absolute and sincere in all other respects, "standing upright his life long on the narrow and giddy crest of absolute negation," with, as he died, a "perhaps" breathed instead of the usual "no." A very valuable part of the book is the complete and accurate bibliography of Mérimée's works prepared by that eminent authority, the Viscount de Spoelberch de Louvenjol, which is published here for the first time.

The *American Journal of Insanity*, published quarterly for half a century at Utica, N. Y., has been purchased and will hereafter be published by the American Medico-Psychological Association of Chicago. Dr. Richard Dewey becomes the temporary editor.

The *Scottish Geographical Magazine* for July contains two valuable, though technical, articles on the mountain systems of Central Asia, by Mr. E. Delmar Morgan, and a continuation of Otto Pettersson's review of Swedish hydrographic research in the Baltic and North Seas. In this part he treats of the Baltic current in the Skagerack and North Sea, the salinity of its waters, its temperature at different seasons, and the meteorological consequences, all of which are illustrated by a series of colored plates. These are followed by a second instalment of Mr. D. R. Urquhart's entertaining notes on the Bolivian Altiplanicie or highlands, mostly devoted to an account of the inhabitants, whom he divides into the Bolivians, who are of Spanish descent, the Cholos or half-breeds, and the Indians. These last are apparently the most hopeless of the three, being "mirthless, abject, spiritless creatures, whose only idea of recreation or pleasure is in drunken orgies of the most disgusting nature." Although a very healthy race, with great powers of endurance, which, the writer suggests, may be partly owing to their continual coca-chewing, and though many of them are very long-lived, he believes that, "as this Indian is really incapable of improvement, he will probably shortly disappear." They are all Roman Catholics, and, if the example given is typical of the class, their priests guide them with a cudgel.

If a thorough equipment can insure success, the Jackson-Harmsworth Polar Expedition, which started from England on July 11, will be successful. It consisted of eight men, all carefully chosen for some special qualification—as, an astronomer, surveyor, photographer, steward, and doctor. While game is abundant in Franz Josef Land, their theatre of operations, they have taken provisions to last four years on full rations, together with a large stock of methylated spirit for fuel and light. A novel feature is an aluminium boat, 18 feet by 5 feet, in three sections, and capable of holding 13 to 20 persons, but weighing only 150 pounds. There are also other boats and eighteen sledges, of extraordinary strength and lightness, and capable each of carrying 1,600 pounds, to be drawn by dogs and Siberian ponies—another novel feature in arctic exploration. We have already described Mr. Jackson's plans, and will only add here that he expects to be gone three years. The total cost of the expedition, borne by Mr. Harmsworth, will be about $100,000.

Die Grenzboten, a weekly periodical published by Grunow at Leipzig, contains in the number for July 12 some sharp and quite significant remarks on "Beamtenbeleidigung," in which the writer animadverts on the growing tendency of imperial prosecuting attorneys to shield Government officials from public criticism by rendering such censure a punishable offence, and thus creating a *delictum sui generis* hitherto unknown to the statutes of the realm. An insult offered to the Emperor or to any of the confederated sovereigns is recognized by the criminal code of the German Empire as "Majestätsbeleidigung," or lese-majesty; and the frequency, and in many cases the frivolity, with which in late years prosecutions have been instituted under this clause, and the gross abuse of the legal protection properly granted to the dignity of rulers, have given rise to much injurious comment and provoked bitter feeling even in the minds of loyal subjects and good citizens, who are instinctively inclined to show due respect to "the powers that be." The consciousness of their official importance, and the habit of exercising absolute authority over submissive and often servile subalterns, have now excited in the higher class of public functionaries in Germany the desire to have a like protection extended to themselves, especially as regards strictures emanating from the press. Hence the attempt to revive the obsolete distinctions between grand and petit as formerly applied to treason and larceny, and thus to establish a new delict known as "kleine Majestätsbeleidigung," or petit lese-majesty, for the safeguard of all servants of the state.

The latest news from the explorations at Hissarlik (*Levant Herald* July 7) comes to us from the owner of the site, Mr. Frank Calvert, United States consul, Dardanelles. It was readily seen that the second, or burned city which Dr. Schliemann enthusiastically assumed to be the city of Priam, instead of solving the question of the 'Iliad,' offered new problems to the archæologist. The precious objects and the works of art there found were evidently ruder and more ancient by some centuries than those of Mycenæ, and therefore decidedly earlier than Homeric Troy. In the sixth city, however, pottery of a Mycenæan type was discovered, and this led Dr. Dörpfeld, assisted by Mrs. Schliemann, and later by the German Government, to extend excavations on this level, with results that are now proving fruitful, and that may possibly be conclusive. Curiously enough, Dr. Schliemann's excavations obscured rather than aided this particular investigation. The area of the sixth city was twice as great as the space covered by the successive acropolises of the other five; and, in consequence, their débris was dumped on the very spot which Dr. Dörpfeld has just been clearing. The massive walls he has uncovered, from five to six metres broad, the lofty towers, and the street which has been traced, may provisionally be assumed to belong to the Homeric Troy.

Mr. W. I. Fletcher writes to us from Amherst: "I am in receipt of a private letter from Mr. M. Foster, Secretary of the Royal Society, in which, referring to a subject-index to the Catalogue of Scientific Papers, he says: 'I have now to inform you that the Royal Society has determined to publish such a subject-index, and that it is already proceeding to

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put the matter in hand.' I am sure this news will be hailed with delight throughout the United States."

We have received from the Skandinavisk Antiquariat at Copenhagen, 49 Gothersgade, a catalogue of Icelandic and Scandinavian works of exceptional rarity or excellence, pertaining to the languages, literature, history, topography, etc., of the countries in question. It represents more than the stock in hand, and has therefore a bibliographical value.

—In *Harper's* for August "Trilby" comes to an end, and so does Mr. Howells's account of his first visit to New England. He gives a report of his interviews with Hawthorne, Thoreau, and Emerson, and mentions that, when Poe was spoken of, Emerson said: "Oh, you mean the jingle-man?" Owen Wister's story, "The Serenade at Siskiyou," is noteworthy because it presents a timely satire on the mushy sentimentalism which sympathizes with riotous strikers. Of the remaining fiction there is not much to be said. Richard Harding Davis tells what he assures us is a true story, and one would rather take his word for it than suppose so clever a writer capable of inventing anything so inane. Mr. Smalley narrates some of his experiences as a war correspondent, and says that during the battle of Antietam an officer on Gen. McClellan's staff requested him to see Gen. Hooker (who had been wounded), "find out whether he can mount his horse, and, if he can, ask him whether he will take command of this army and drive Lee into the Potomac or force him to surrender." "Up the Norway Coast," by George C. Pease, contains some useful information for travellers in that region, not the least attractive item being to the effect that the mean temperature in July is 56°. Mr. Julian Ralph's article on "Old Monmouth" might serve to point a moral on the literary shortcomings of much of our magazine literature. It starts very well with much interesting historical lore concerning Monmouth County, N. J., then veers off into a pretty enough celebration of the fish-hawks of the region, and winds up with a reprint of the Asbury Park bathing regulations. It surely is not exorbitant to ask that in an article of only fifteen pages, of which nearly one-third is taken up with illustrations, there should be a little more unity of treatment. Even the illustrations do not refer to anything in the text; however, the frontispiece, engraved by Victor Bernstrom after a study from nature by himself, may be enjoyed as confirming the feeling for the picturesque and the technical skill already displayed by the same artist on a larger scale in depicting the same Shark River.

—The *Century* opens with an article on "Washington as a Spectacle" which would at once be recognized as being by Mr. Marion Crawford even if his name were not signed to it. It is pleasant to observe that his style gains in force and dignity. When he says, "For the French mind differentiates keenly, but integrates by one rule only, which is the Parisian," it would be some satisfaction to have an explanation of the Parisian rule for integrating. The most attractive piece of fiction is Mrs. Mary Hallock Foote's "Maverick," a masculine, tragic story. There is an instructive description of "The Coleman Collection of Antique Glass," by Russell Sturgis, and a fine engraving by Cole from Quentin Matsys, in his series of the "The Old Dutch Masters." In the fourth instalment of "Across Asia on a Bicycle" it is stated that one method of sweetening tea in use among the Russians is "to hang a lump [of sugar] in the midst of a tea-drinking circle, to be swung around for each in turn to touch with his tongue, and then to take a swallow of tea." The singularity about this is that Diedrich Knickerbocker reports the same custom as being in vogue in the town of New Amsterdam. A discussion in which Senator Hoar advocates Woman Suffrage while Dr. J. M. Buckley opposes it, pretty nearly exhausts the subject without settling it. Perhaps the most important article, from a purely literary point of view, is that on "Poe in the South," consisting of selections from Poe's correspondence edited by Prof. Geo. E. Woodberry. The letters here printed form part of a collection of papers which will appear in book form under the editorship of Wm. M. Griswold, a son of the Rev. Rufus Wilmot Griswold, whose biography of Poe was the occasion of a heated and acrimonious controversy nearly forty years ago. Prof. Woodberry vindicates Dr. Griswold from the aspersions of his critics, and confirms his judgment of Poe; but the letters need more explanation to show their full bearing on Poe's biography.

—In *Scribner's* Prof. Woodberry prints, with comments, a number of letters written by Lowell to Poe in 1842-'44, also forming a portion of the Griswold papers. They contain matter of biographical and literary interest, throwing more light, however, on Lowell than on Poe. Poe's letters are not included, having appeared in Woodberry's Life of Poe. A letter of Robert Carter to Poe bears witness to Lowell's rapidity of composition, mentioning that he had written a poem of 400 lines in seven or eight hours. In one letter Lowell advises Poe (who was about to edit a magazine which was projected, but came to nothing) to "be very watchful of your publishers and agents. They must be driven as men drive swine—take your eyes off them for an instant and they bolt between your legs and leave you in the mire." Mr. Bunner's story, "French for a Fortnight," is adroitly managed so that just as the reader is about to ask impatiently when the story is going to begin, he finds himself stumbling over the end of it. M. Octave Uzanne carries out quite consistently the somewhat obvious fantasy that books will in time be superseded by the phonograph and illustrations by the kinetograph, of which he says he saw "the first trial at Orange Park, New Jersey." Mention should be made also of Mr. W. B. Closson's fine engraving of Carolus Duran's "The Poet with the Mandolin."

—The *Atlantic* contains the final instalment of Sidney Lanier's letters to Mr. Peacock. They are pathetic for their revelation of the poet's struggles with consumption and poverty, and of the gentle patience with which he bore his many burdens. He was a reluctant and an unsuccessful applicant for a Government position under the Hayes Administration, and was casting about for a place in the Johns Hopkins University or in the Peabody Library in Baltimore, all in the hope of obtaining a more secure livelihood than was afforded him by magazine articles and by his engagement as first flute in the Peabody orchestra. In a letter written in November, 1878, he outlines a scheme for systematic courses of lectures to serve as "Schools for Grown People," which have a vague resemblance to the Chautauqua system. Under the title of "The College Graduate and Public Life," Theodore Roosevelt indulges in a criticism of the critics similar to that expressed by Senator Lodge in his recent Phi Beta Kappa address at Harvard. It seems hardly probable, however, that he will persuade the critics to lay down the pen and take up the sword. He might as well try to convert a razor into a carving-knife. Another obvious consideration is that the actors on any stage must always be outnumbered by the audience, and that a good actor will always prefer a critical audience. Mr. A. H. Washburn's article on "Our Consular Service" is a very useful piece of criticism, and evidently the work of an expert. "Professional Horsemen," by H. C. Merwin, is a little out of the ordinary run of magazine articles, but very readable and touched with humor.

—Nowhere else than in Old England could such a book as Prof. G. G. Ramsay's 'Latin Prose Versions' (Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan) have got itself published. It is a small quarto beautifully printed on the largest of paper, bound in half vellum, and deckle-edged with gilt top; there being only 300 copies, of which but 220 are offered for sale. And the contents of all this magnificence are Latin versions, 150 of them, turned by 30 eminent Englishmen from well-known English writers. Among the contributors are the Archbishop of Canterbury (who "does" a page from Grote), Profs. Butcher, Conington, Robinson Ellis, Nettleship, and Postgate, and Drs. Merry, Sidgwick, Sandys, Reid, and the editor himself. The English authors from whom the selections are made include Shakspere, Burke, Addison, Lord Chesterfield, Cromwell, Darwin, Mill, Froude, Gibbon, Macaulay, Raleigh, Scott, and Thackeray. Classical teachers everywhere will agree with Prof. Ramsay that the practice of Latin composition supplies them with their most effective method for teaching clearness of thought and purity of style; and it is only to be regretted that the price of this book and the limited number of copies put it out of the reach of those to whom it would do the most good. A cheaper edition would be a real boon to school and college-teachers throughout this country, where indeed the interest in Latin composition, of late years dulled, seems now to be reviving. The versions are in general very well done and will repay careful thought and study. Many of them have the true classic ring, and only now and then do we meet what reminds us of Dr. Johnson's definition—"*Latin:* an exercise practised by schoolboys who turn English into Latin."

—Our Paris correspondent last week attributed, no doubt correctly, to Proudhon the invention of the *doctrinal* meaning of the word Anarchy. Littré's earliest quotation for the word in its abstract sense is from Bossuet in the last third of the seventeenth century. Dr. Murray's earliest quotation is from Taverner's translation (1539) of Erasmus's 'Adagia'; "This unleful lyberty or lycence of the multytude is called an Anarchie," and it is extremely probable that Erasmus (about the year 1500) gave to the word its modern currency. "The populace is plotting anarchy," he says in one of his 'Colloquies' (1522) ("Puerpera"); and from a marginal gloss in editions so late as Amsterdam 1662 and Basel 1683 ("*Anarchia*, cum nullo principe tumultuatur populus"), it clearly appears that the word was a Latin neologism. In the Leyden edition (1703) of the 'Opera Omnia,' "ex recensione Johannis clerici," this gloss is dropped, presumably for the reason given in the preface to volume i., that the 'Colloquies' had been disfigured with a lot of silly, false, puerile, or superfluous patches, which the editor felt in

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duty bound to remove—in order to make room for his own "multò uberiores Notæ." In other words, Anarchy by that time needed no explanation for any scholar of the Greek, and probably it was familiar enough in the vernacular of all the western European languages. Dr. Murray shows that Bacon used it as an ordinary word in 1605. There must be other instances in which the 'New English Dictionary,' by its historical examples, furnishes a clue to the origin of words in Continental languages also.

HITTELL'S MENTAL GROWTH OF MANKIND.—I.

A History of the Mental Growth of Mankind in Ancient Times. By John S. Hittell. 4 vols. Henry Holt & Co. 1893.

In these days of monographs and encyclopædias he is a bold man who undertakes in a single book to give a connected history of the mental growth of mankind in ancient times, and who means to "follow up this book with other volumes, in which the course of human progress [shall] be traced down to the present day." It will be seen that Mr. Hittell has come very near selecting the universe as his specialty. He is aware of the magnitude of his task. In his preface he gives a list of questions which the historian of culture should answer. These fill five pages, and range from, "Were the first men black, yellow, or white?" to "Has the Celt any natural fitness for free government?" and from "Was dress first used for ornament, for comfort, or for the gratification of modesty?" to "Is our moral code the product of intuitive perception, or of experience guided by reason?" With becoming modesty, he expresses the hope that his own answers to these questions, if not successful, may at least serve as stepping-stones to better solutions by-and-by.

Writing not for scholars, but for the public, Mr. Hittell is obviously held to four main requirements: simplicity of plan, a controlled abundance of interesting details, accuracy, and a lively style. He must consult the best authorities, but he is not bound to get all his materials at first hand, or to enlarge the domain of science. His business is to codify, to expound, and, meanwhile, to keep his readers awake. One of these requirements the author satisfies fully. He is seldom dull. He has read widely, he has considerable mental alertness, and he knows what will interest his audience. We may open any one of his volumes almost anywhere and be pretty sure of finding entertainment. His style, though not brilliant or always correct, is usually clear and straightforward, and has some vigor. We have observed but one instance in which his Pegasus has run quite away with him, and that is the peroration of his remarks on the uses of evil. We have space for only the closing words, which are to the effect that "material, moral, and intellectual progress, arm in arm with their congenial associate, general enjoyment, shall continue their glorious triumphal march, with speed increasing in geometrical ratio, so long as mankind shall exist." We venture to suggest that so swift an acceleration of a triumphal march would endanger its dignity.

Mr. Hittell divides culture into three grades, which he calls "culturesteps" (a hideous adaptation of *Kulturstufen*): savagism (another unpleasant word), barbarism, and civilization. "Barbarism," we are told, "is the condition of the Aztecs, Quichuans, ancient Egyptians, Phœnicians, Carthaginians, Persians, and Hindoos, the Chinese and the Mohammedan nations. They have cities and natural government, but lack a high intellectual life. Civilization is limited to the ancient Greeks and Romans and the modern Christian nations." This classification denies a high intellectual life to the authors of much respectable literature, including the Hebrew Scriptures, which Mr. Hittell himself calls "the most wonderful of books." It also puts the Aztecs and Quichuans into the same category with the Phœnicians and the Indo-Iranians. So weak an attempt at defining "culturesteps" as this does not encourage the reader to expect much method in the treatise that is to follow. And, indeed, this feebleness of grasp on important historical generalizations is a defect that defeats the whole purpose of the book. The historian of culture has to accumulate details, and to estimate, on the basis of these details, the degree of civilization which this or that people has attained. In this part of his task Mr. Hittell has not been uniformly successful, though his estimates are commonly not far astray. But the historian of culture has another and a far more difficult duty. He must define with clearness the contributions made to progress by various nations. He must explain the relations of nation to nation and of race to race so far as these relations have affected culture. He must grapple with problems of race-mixture, of migration not merely of races but of institutions, of the absorption of lesser civilizations by greater, of the lending and the borrowing of languages. And throughout these discussions he must never lose sight of his main purpose—to describe the progress of the human race and not merely of its parts. The great nations that have passed the torch on must be studied not merely for themselves or even as typical of different stages of social advancement, but as active, if unconscious, promoters of general enlightenment. Peoples which, like the Aztecs, have for any reason exerted no influence on the world at large, may be studied as types, no doubt, but must not be so treated as to interfere with the main plan of presentation.

Mr. Hittell would of course agree with all this; indeed, he expresses himself to much the same effect. But his control over details is not firm enough to enable him to keep these general principles always in mind, and his constructive skill is inadequate to the execution of so large and complicated a literary task. His "history" is, therefore, rather a collection of essays or cyclopædia articles than a unified work. The chapters that should introduce, sum up, connect, generalize, are scrappy and insufficient at best, and are sometimes left out altogether.

In the first volume, which deals with savage life, this fault, though not so conspicuous as it becomes later, is visible enough. The prefatory chapter treats of "Man's Antiquity," his "Simian Relations" (a trifle ambiguous!), and so on, very briefly, but it may serve well enough as an introduction. There follow interesting chapters on Ethnology, Industry, Social and Intellectual Life, Polity, Military System, and Religion, in which these matters are illustrated with an abundance of facts; but when it becomes necessary to give the results of the whole investigation, the author leaves us in the lurch. The summary at the end of the volume is both incomplete and rambling. It occupies but nineteen pages, and the titles of three consecutive divisions—"Departmental Relations," "Queer Customs," "Benefits of War"—indicate its discursive character. A similar fault shows itself in some of the preceding chapters. That on savage religion, for example, does not contain a clear statement of any theory of religious development except that which Mr. Hittell happens to hold, and even this is somewhat obscured by details. The discussion of marriage is similarly unsatisfactory.

In the second volume—"Heathen Barbarism"—the weakness just adverted to becomes marked, and its results are confusing and misleading to the last degree. The first chapter is entitled "Bronze." It consists of three sections: "Barbarism," "Bronze Tools," and "Superiority of Iron." The main points as to the connection between barbarism and bronze are given, but the reader must get at the significance of the facts as best he can. The chapters that follow show some curious ideas of proportion. To the Aztecs 42 pages of text are given; to the Quichuans, 28; to the Chinese, 42; to the Japanese, 5; to the Egyptians, 61; to the Celts, 10; to the Teutons and Etruscans, 5 each. These figures are eloquent. Mr. Hittell does not contend that either Aztec or Quichuan culture has had any effect on the progress of mankind; yet he gives to these two tribes together more than three times the space allotted to the Teutons, Celts, and Etruscans. He seems himself to suspect that there is something wrong in this. After dismissing the Teutons with their beggarly dole of pages, he remarks, apologetically: "This may seem a brief account of an ethnological family which unquestionably occupies the first place in the history of culture . . . ; but it must be remembered that not until after the Teutons had been brought under the influence of Rome did they show their great capacities and begin to exert a strong influence on other nationalities. Their glories belong to a later period." This is not to the point. We do not want a discussion of the glories of the Teutonic race. That may be deferred to one of the forthcoming works with which Mr. Hittell threatens us in his preface. What we require is an account of the culture and the religion of the ancient Germans that shall indicate what manner of men they were.

One may ask, too, when the Germans first came into contact with the Romans. Was it later than the time of the Conquest of Peru or the Conquest of Mexico? But the chronological limits of this second volume are hard to survey. The author actually defies time when, in the closing chapter, he remarks that "although we have studied the Chinese, Japanese, Aztecs, and Quichuans, who belong wholly or largely to modern times, and have considered the Celts and Teutons, who became prominent about the beginning of the Christian era, and have not yet taken up the Jews and Greeks, whose activity dates back to a period before the rise of Persia; yet, notwithstanding these inequalities in the chronological lines, the general story of human progress has now been brought down to 500 B. C." We must confess our inability to follow the turns and twists of a method like this. The real reason for the scant measure dealt to our Germanic ancestors we think we have discovered by a search in the notes and bibliography appended to the volume. The notes substitute for citations the significant remark: "In reference to the ancient Teutons, there is no one authority of superior comprehensiveness and accuracy." The bibliography contains the titles of no works on the subject except Prof. Anderson's 'Norse Mythology' and Mr. Du Chaillu's 'Viking Age.' Even so accessible a book as Prof. Gummere's excellent 'Germanic Origins' has escaped the notice of our historian of culture.

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Another "feature" of this curious second volume is the section on the Primitive Aryans. This occupies (if one counts the notes) just four pages, and two of these are taken up by quotations from Max Müller's 'Chips.' The amateur of statistics might find amusement in instituting a few comparisons. We shall content ourselves with setting over against these four pages the five pages devoted to the "aggressive [foreign] policy" of the Quichuans. Again Mr. Hittell's notes and bibliography betray him. He knows nothing of Schrader, old edition or new. To him the Aryan migration is a migration of tribes, in all cases, never a "migration of culture." He has no inkling of the complicated questions, vitally important to the historian of civilization, which surround this whole matter. Fifty pages would have been none too many to give to the primitive Aryans, and the reader is put off with four. The defects of Mr. Hittell's method are again exemplified in the chapters on the Egyptians, the Ancient Indians, and the Persians. The space assigned to these peoples is sufficient, but the discussion of connections and interrelations is scanty. Thus, out of sixty pages on the Egyptians, but two pages are given to "Egypt's place" in the history of civilization. Again, in the chapter on the Hindus, one of the most important questions in comparative literature is dismissed with the unilluminating dictum: "'The Arabian Nights' and 'Æsop's Fables' are copied from the ancient books of the Hindu."

ALLEN'S UNITARIAN MOVEMENT.

An Historical Sketch of the Unitarian Movement since the Reformation. [American Church History.] By Joseph Henry Allen, D.D., late Lecturer in Ecclesiastical History in Harvard University; Honorary Member of the Supreme Consistory of Transylvania. New York: The Christian Literature Co. 1894.

If the series of American Church Histories, of which this volume is the first instalment, is kept up to the level of Dr. Allen's 'Sketch,' it will be an extremely valuable addition to our present stock of careful information. Such a consummation, however devoutly to be wished, we hardly dare expect, for Dr. Allen was, by birth, experience, and culture, peculiarly well fitted for his task. One of a long line of clergymen exceptionally strong in Harvard names; the grandson of the elder Ware, whose election to the Hollis professorship in 1805 marked the accession of Harvard to the Unitarian movement; the son of a Unitarian minister, settled for life in Northboro', Mass., who was a typical representative of all the humbler virtues and fidelities of the New England country clergyman; a scholar second to no other in the Unitarian body, and one whose specialty has been the study of this body's origin and growth, loving its traditions, and devoted to its great names and high examples, while illustrating in himself the utmost freedom of its intellectual development—so qualified and conditioned, Dr. Allen possessed extraordinary fitness for the work of which the volume now before us is the ripe and pleasant fruit. In and between the lines one reads of the most liberal knowledge of the subject and the most careful special preparation. In the expression of his opinions and in his characterization of persons and events, the writer steadily observes the rule of naught in overplus. He brings a tempered admiration to the depiction of the men who, like Hedge and Bellows, have impressed him most. In no respect does his book differ so widely from the ordinary church history as in the entire absence of all extravagant laudation, all "booming" of his special cause. If we are not mistaken, many of his Unitarian friends will wish that his tone had been less disengaged, and many of his more orthodox readers will wonder that it could be so to such a remarkable degree. The action goes on without a chorus from the beginning to the end, and we are not disposed to question the wisdom of this arrangement.

"Pleads for itself the fact,
As unrepentant Nature leaves her every act."

It is certain that Dr. Allen has set down naught in malice, it is equally certain that he has extenuated nothing in his history.

The first chapter, which treats of the reformers Valdés and Ochino and related matters, suffers from the scarcity of our knowledge and the vagueness of the first tentative departures from the theology of Rome, with which Luther had no quarrel save in the one particular of salvation by faith alone. Evidently there was in the sixteenth century a great variety of departures from the orthodox standard, some of which, without the severe repression of both Catholics and Protestants, might have become vigorous growths.

In his second chapter Dr. Allen confines himself to Servetus, with whom he deals much more sympathetically than with the Socini, especially the younger, in the chapter following. This is because Servetus had more of the free intellect, less of the dry, thin, rationalizing temper of the Socinian founders. There is no exaggeration of the circumstances of Servetus's death nor undue emphasis upon them. Calvin's action received wide Protestant endorsement. He would have had Servetus beheaded. But evidently his death was determined, as it was threatened, in advance of the trial, and Calvin did his best to make the Roman Inquisition do his dreadful work. Very grim is the humor of his 'Refutation' of Servetus after his death, where he writes how he had hoped that his errors "would soon vanish of themselves in smoke." To the criticism of the Bible, Servetus brought an intelligence that was remarkable for his time. His insistence that the Old Testament predictions dealt with immediate events went nigh to anticipate the views of Dr. Noyes in 1834, for which a prosecution was threatened. His departure from the orthodox doctrine of the Trinity has never met with favor among Unitarians. It was of that Sabellian type, panoplied in which Moses Stuart of Andover went forth to war against the Unitarians of Channing's time, and whose vaguer adumbrations are sufficient to sustain the consciousness of orthodoxy among the "progressive orthodox" of our own day. Servetus shared the Anabaptist distrust of infant baptism as something magical in its operation, and nothing will more commend him to the modern heart than the wonderfully tender prayer concerning children which Dr. Allen quotes (p. 44). Contemporary Calvinists will find no fault with Dr. Allen's treatment of Calvin. We have something very like an apology for his conduct in the plea that tolerance of Servetus might have jeoparded the Reformation's hard-won liberties.

Coming to the Socini, Lælius and Faustus, the uncle (Lælius) has for Dr. Allen, as for Dr. Alexander Gordon, the most careful English student on these lines, the more attractive personality. His temper was more sceptical than dogmatic, and he had nothing of the constructive temper of his nephew Faustus, who was twenty-three years old when his uncle died, in 1562. What the nephew essayed was to bring the whole system of orthodox dogma into comparison with the New Testament, and build up a system over against that of Calvin, which should have chapter and verse, without traditional corruption, wherewith to support itself. A career of singular nobility does not atone with Dr. Allen for the dryness of his intellect, his lack of emotional ardor, spiritual fire. (To the early Socinians generally Dr. Allen brings the same distrust, which does not seem in perfect keeping with his well-considered admiration of the "Racovian Catechism" (1605), the best expression of their own and their leader's thought.) His relations with Francis David, the Transylvanian Unitarian, cast the deepest shadow on his fame. These Dr. Allen passes over too lightly. Socinus insisted on the worship of Jesus *as* God, because, while he was truly man, God had given him "a name above all names" in recognition of his glorious life and death. David would worship God alone, and consequently he was thrown into a dungeon, in which he shortly died. Socinus was summoned from Poland, by the wretched Blandrata, who was a conspicuous Socinian, both in Poland and Transylvania, to take part in the affair. His part is not clear; but the whole miserable business is one for Unitarians to remember when they are disposed to deal severely with Calvin's treatment of Servetus.

The subject of Dr. Allen's fourth chapter is the heroic martyr age of Polish Unitarianism. (The name first appears in 1568.) That the Unitarian college at Rakow had, at one time, about one thousand pupils, is one sign of many of the vigorous development of Socinian Unitarianism on Polish soil. A succession of Jesuit rulers, culminating in John Casimir, a Jesuit cardinal, brought this development to naught. For once, at least, the blood of the martyrs was not the seed of the church. An edict of exile was passed in 1658 to take effect in 1661, but it was enforced in 1660. As compared with the exile of the Huguenots from France, this was much more desperate and cruel; for the Huguenots had Protestant friends abroad, but these had none at all. A few were well received in Brandenburg. In 1730 eleven families of these were left. In 1838 two old men were the poor, feeble remnant of a sect which at one time had the promise of dominating all others in the kingdom of Poland.

A chapter on Transylvania gains much in interest from the fact that Dr. Allen has studied the Unitarianism of that country not merely in books, but as a traveller visiting the scenes of its tragedies and successes, and making the acquaintance of its modern representatives. The name of Francis David is their most honored name. Here, too, the Jesuit persecution was effective, but the triumph of a conservative temper was hardly less damaging. Where there were 425 congregations under David's preaching, there are now but 106. The whole story is full of interest and instruction, and it is told extremely well; the figure of David standing out with mournful grandeur against the darkness of a fierce and troubled time.

The history of English Unitarianism is rich in names of much more than sectarian repute —Milton, Locke, Newton, Penn, Clarke, Priestley, Martineau. With respect to Martineau, Dr. Allen makes a marked exception to his avoidance of living persons as subjects of characterization, allowing himself the pleasure of a liberal appreciation. Dr. Martineau contributes a letter which is printed as an appendix. Personally he is a Unitarian, but he does

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not believe in Unitarian churches or other organizations. When Unitarianism began to organize itself (1774), he thinks that it surrendered its birthright. But there is little evidence that the movement by any other name would have been more liberal or more sympathetic with the best in other sects. As a movement of thought in sympathy with science, and a movement of ethics in sympathy with reform, Unitarianism, both in England and America, owes much to Priestley, and it has been generally true to his initiative; but, while Martineau appreciated the spirit of the Slave Power as clearly as his sister Harriet, he was one of the most perverse in his interpretation of the issues of our civil war.

Dr. Allen's chapter on the antecedents of New England Unitarianism is good work, and shows his stomach for statistics at its best. Everywhere it is a stomach that assimilates them and does not leave them crude and undigested for the torment of his page. But as he comes down nearer to our own time in the following chapters, he is, if not more instructive, much more entertaining, for he speaks that which he personally knows, and testifies to that which he has seen. He has a remarkable aptitude for sketching the characters of the men whom he has known, in a few lively strokes. On pp. 203–205 there are nearly a dozen of these portraits, which could not be better done. Emerson is made one of the goodly fellowship without any forcing of the note, so long he kept up the habit of preaching in Unitarian pulpits after his Boston resignation (1832), and so modestly he at length took his position as a layman in the Concord meeting-house. There is more emphasis on Parker, setting his relation to his Boston brethren in the clearest light, but we note the singular omission of any mention of Parker's anti-slavery work; and this extends to the whole period. That the words slavery and anti-slavery do not occur in the index might only mean that it is not complete, as it is not; but neither, with one exception, do we find them in the text, while the part taken by Unitarians in the civil war has liberal allowance. Even the characterizations of John Pierpont, Samuel J. May, and Freeman Clarke contain no allusions to their most significant endeavors. These omissions give the denomination a worse appearance than it deserves.

The gradual development of various denominational agencies is lucidly set forth. The avoidance of living persons sometimes effects a palpable injustice, as where Weiss and Wasson are named as representatives of the Free Religious Association, and Abbot, Frothingham, and Potter, who signified an hundred times as much for it, are entirely left out. Mr. Potter's death some months ago should have given him the freedom of Dr. Allen's book, for no other has so well expressed the later Unitarian thought. The details of p. 235 and those of p. 236 are related as cause and effect, but there was no such relation in the events. The "Western Issue" was inspired by theological timidity, not by the dread of moral laxity, for the prevention of which a system of "Committees on Fellowship" was organized. It is an interesting comment on some recent signs of impatience with the Unitarian name that of 444 churches only 197 at present bear that name; the others, with two or three exceptions, never having borne it. That of 510 living ministers more than 100 were educated in other forms of belief, would seem to indicate a certain tide in the affairs of men.

Dr. Allen's style is generally as direct as possible, but we seem to have a satirical intention in the sentence which speaks of the orthodoxy of the Andover School as "protected by the periodical signing of its creed by each of its instructors."

A Traveller from Altruria. By W. D. Howells. Harper & Bros.

SEVERAL of Mr. Howells's recent works have indicated his serious mental perturbation about our social conditions; his latest shows that he finds respite in the beautiful dream of that day when we shall all literally do unto others as we would be done by. With his customary literary skill, he heightens the fairness of the vision by a prefatory picture of the conspicuously ugly features of our actual state. Much the larger part of his book is given to a discussion of the difference between theory and practice in the American Republic, and here Mr. Howells speaks the thoughts of many men of his time with that clearness, force, and vivacity which have made his fame as a novelist; in the shorter part, the description of Altruria, he speaks the thoughts of Jesus Christ with graftings from Sir Thomas More, Bacon, and William Morris, all fused by that sweet though vague imagination which gives him some claim to sit among the poets.

From beginning to end the tide of his sympathy flows violently with the workingman, by which term is distinctly understood the man who works with his hands. "Goodness of nature," said the versatile and in practice scarcely Christlike Bacon, "is of all virtues and dignities of the mind the greatest, being the character of the Deity; and without it man is a busy, mischievous, wretched thing, no better than a kind of vermin." Mr. Howells seems to argue on the mistaken assumption that goodness of nature has its permanent and exclusive abiding-place only in the breast of the workingman, and that there can be no hope of its acquisition by others until we enter into a political condition where all shall work with their hands for at least three or four hours a day. We are not obliged to call upon history to testify that manual labor is not necessarily a purifier of the spirit and sure means of grace, nor to prove that the laborer, like the capitalist, may not on occasion show himself a mischievous, wretched thing, and a peculiarly harmful kind of vermin. It is well that we have not to fly to the historical argument for succor, for that is the argument conspicuously flouted by the socialist. Mr. Howells even scorns the argument from human nature; but he cannot be said to justify this scorn. There is, however, one historical precedent which the socialist professedly cherishes and declares to be the model of his ideal state. The traveller from Altruria dwells upon it. It is the tradition of the early Christian republics or communities. Without pretending to any accurate knowledge of these early communities, we have an impression that they were small and scattered and very poor, that they were held together by fear of persecution as much as by mutual love, and that, as this fear was lifted, the members began to drift apart, and each one to look out for his own interests. If the cases are to be paralleled, why is it not lawful to suppose that when the tyranny of capital shall have been abolished and all material distinctions levelled, when persecution and oppression and fear shall have become obsolete words, there may be another separation, degenerating again into an individual scramble for individual aggrandizement? The Altrurian of course would assert that this could not be, because human nature would have changed; so, as it had changed in Altruria, we look to him confidently for an explanation of how the change came about. But he fails us sadly. "I wish," he says, "that I had time to go into a study of some of the curious phases of the transformation from a civility in which the people lived *upon* each other to one in which they lived *for* each other." This lack of time is indeed to be regretted, because we feel that the secret of the transformation lies in those "curious phases," and that, understanding them, we should also understand how a proletariat which had long been in the voting majority and had persistently elected corrupt and vicious men to control public affairs, suddenly swung about and elected honest and virtuous men, and kept on electing them, till even the most hardened of former oppressors praised God that the old order had passed away for ever.

But such demand for detailed information is unfair to Mr. Howells speaking as a poet. We should enjoy the fabric of a vision without inquiring too closely about the solidity of its base. Less captious is it to ask whether he is not, for once, at fault as an observer of American life in some trifling social matters. Though the literary class in America is far from guiltless of the charge of kotowing to wealth and fashion, we hope it would be hard to find in it so arrant a snob and cad as the host of the courteous and childlike Altrurian. What man of sense (not to mention of letters) ever cared for five minutes whether his friend helped a porter with a trunk or not, or ever went into hysterics because the same friend took a turn at bootblacking? Moved by Mr. Howells's severe and on the whole just arraignment of the American nation, we must defend it in these small details. It has frequently been our privilege to see men representing the classes, gathered together at that mountain hotel, lend a hand with heavy trunks without exciting surprise or censure. And, as for bootblacking, had Mr. Howells got on the scent, he would probably have unearthed in that very hotel several young ladies, daughters of his banker or lawyer, who carry about with them them the needful implements, and not only exercise their muscle on their own foot-gear, but also cordially proffer a "shine" to an unskilled friend, who would otherwise be obliged to put up with the blotchy performance of the despised and oppressed menial who, "on account of inadequate wages," is "compelled to accept a tip" for his more inadequate services. We linger on these insignificant defects in observation, not for their own sake, but because they lead us to hope that in graver affairs we may also be less black than Mr. Howells has painted us.

Rudin. By Ivan Turgenev. Translated from the Russian by Constance Garnett. New York: Macmillan.

A NEW translation of Turgeneff's novels direct from the Russian has long been desired by those who are acquainted with them in the original. There has not even been uniformity to recommend the versions of the various volumes which have hitherto been accessible to the English-reading public. Some of them were made through the medium of the German, some through that of the French translations or "arrangements," and the result was truly appalling, both as to style and as to errors. For several years past efforts have been made to induce some American publisher to undertake this greatly needed work in the standard

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literature of the world, but without avail. An English firm, that of W. Heinemann, has had the laudable enterprise to begin the issue of a set of seven volumes, of which 'Rudin' is the first.

Despite the advantage of direct translation, we sadly miss the exquisite phrasing of the beautiful Russian tongue, which was music itself from Turgeneff's lips. Of the story we need say nothing: its main features are familiar. Rudin, the hero, is the sort of man, common in other lands besides Russia, who is endowed with the gift of empty eloquence which charms all undiscriminating hearers—and nothing more. His life is barren of fruits; he dies, uselessly, in a vain cause. Stepniak, the revolutionary writer, who furnishes an interesting preface to the new series, adding remarks about Rudin in particular, seems, however, to claim him more particularly for Russia, as the typical man of the epoch of 1840. His comments on the little circles of that day, whose members worshipped at the shrine of one of their own number, are very helpful for the foreigner who desires fully to understand the significance of Turgeneff's creation. Equally so are the suggestions as to the reason why Turgeneff was earlier appreciated abroad than at home, though we are inclined to believe that Stepniak exaggerates in this respect through loyalty to hospitable foreign lands, as opposed to his native land, where he can no longer live, and which he is rather too much in the habit of underrating in most respects. We should like to commend to him and his sympathizers a paragraph in this very book, which he professes to admire so much:

"Rudin's misfortune is that he does not understand Russia, and that, certainly, is a great misfortune. Russia can do without every one of us, but not one of us can do without her. Woe to him who thinks he can, and woe twofold to him who actually does do without her. Cosmopolitanism is all twaddle; the cosmopolitan is a nonentity—worse than a nonentity. Without nationality there is no art, nor truth, nor life, nor anything. You cannot even have an ideal face without individual expression; only a vulgar face can be devoid of it."

The translation seems faithful, too faithful in the matter of punctuation in many instances to render the sense clear to English readers. The constant use of . . . is thoroughly Russian, but not admissible in English as a substitute for the dash in most of the cases where it is used here. The inconvenience of its use, even in Russian, is great, as it is the punctuation which is intended to indicate that the censor's office has eliminated disloyal or displeasing passages. There is no question of anything of that sort here; but the pointing is suggestive and unpleasant to our unaccustomed eyes. The principle observed in the transliteration of proper names is not very easy of comprehension. The final Russian *v*, followed by the symbol which hardens the pronunciation, is rendered as *v* in English—Turgenev, Lezhynov, and so forth. But Bassistoff, which terminates in the same way, is reproduced in the conventional manner which represents the sound, while the *s* is doubled, as never happens in Russian.

The most serious defect of the translation lies in its awkward, infelicitous phrases, which sometimes amount to bad grammar. From internal evidence it would seem as though Miss Garnett must have been born of English parents in Russia, and reared there, speaking English as her auxiliary, not her native tongue. We will content ourselves with a number of quotations, occasionally supplying the missing words or the proper form in brackets. "She is too weak; [it is] impossible to move her." "Hospitals, schools, and all that sort of things, are mere waste of time." "Why were you asking your way of that girl, am I to suppose?" "There is hardly any one more [else]." "There is one other of our neighbors." "I [have] purposely refrained from questioning you until now." "Volintsev had got on to curious terms with him." "In everything wise design and beauty seemed apparent, everything took [assumed] a clear and yet mystic significance." "It was a soft and peaceful evening, but under this peace was felt [could be felt] the secret breath of passion." "But up to this time I [have] believed in you." "He got up, buttoning himself up." "This letter proved to her clearer than all possible arguments." "He behaved . . . just as if he had not been [were not] a living man, but his own statue set up by public subscription." In the sentence: "a rosy-cheeked lad in a gray cloak, with a blue sash round the waist," the word should be coat, or caftan, not cloak. All these mistakes are precisely of the sort which Russians commit in writing English, and it is to be hoped that the following volumes will receive severe revision as to language and punctuation, for the comfort of the public, who will find this volume rather rough, unsatisfactory reading, notwithstanding its manifest excellences in other directions. This respect is certainly due to Turgeneff, who loses more than almost any other writer in losing his own language.

Geschichte der Musik in England. Von Dr. Wilibald Nagel. Erster Theil. Strassburg: K. J. Trübner; New York: Westermann.

Briefly stated, the object of Dr. Nagel's book is to show that England was not always in the van as regards musical culture and progress. He begins with the earliest records and intends to end with Purcell, "the last great English composer whose works, in part at least, have an unmistakable English coloring." The Handel period has, he thinks, been treated with sufficient detail by Chrysander, while "the English musical culture of recent decades is rooted almost exclusively in German soil."

With all his industry and erudition, Dr. Nagel does not succeed in removing the feeling that our only certain knowledge about the practice of English music in the earliest historic times is that we know very little about it. Yet there are a few scattered intimations that music played a great rôle in social life long before Shakspere's time; such as Beda's statement (eighth century) that at banquets the harp went from hand to hand, and that if a guest was unable to sing, he left the hall ashamed of himself. In the eighth century also are found the first certain traces of the use of organs in churches, whereas Spain had them in the fifth. Dr. Nagel considers it beyond doubt that it was from Germany that England got her first organ, and he mentions the odd fact that at one time letters were written on the keys to enable the player the more readily to recognize the key called for. The earliest organs had a compass of only one octave, and quantity of sound was obviously more valued than quality; at least Wulston describes an instrument which made a noise like thunder and was audible all over town.

In a chapter on the theorists, our author himself is obliged to admit that their writings confirm Vischer's assertion that the science of æsthetics is still in its infancy, and that "in the æsthetic wisdom of the mediæval theorists, apart from J. de Muris, nothing is more remarkable than the rigid persistence with which one repeats what another had said before him." The technical remarks in this chapter are intelligible only to those who have some acquaintance with the history of musical notation and polyphony; but in general the author has kept the promise made in the preface that he would relegate to the appendix such details as interest specialists only. In some aspects human nature and musical practices and abuses were the same in those early days as now. John of Salisbury complains that the main object of the singers was to make the congregation admire their technical skill by adorning ecclesiastic melodies with runs, and Tunstede says that the vanity of these singers was so great that when they had executed a piece particularly well, they would turn round to make sure that the auditors were properly impressed.

In common with all champions of English music, Dr. Nagel makes much of "Sumer is icumen in," which, being the oldest known canon, seems to indicate that the English were the first to introduce the important device of imitation in music. The inference is a bold and risky one, but has never been disproved. On pages 79, 80 some very interesting remarks are quoted on the part which the yodle and mountain echoes may have played in suggesting imitation and canonic form in music. A sentence on p. 83 indicates that Dr. Nagel, in common with many German writers, makes the mistake of classing the Flemish composer Lassus (Orlando Lasso) among Germans. On the same page we read about the great influence which English instrumental music had on the Continent; a claim which seems scarcely substantiated by the subsequent chapter on this department of music.

Minstrelsy is discussed at considerable length, a distinction being made between minstrels who were regularly connected with some court and those who had no master but wandered whither they pleased. There seems to be reliable evidence that in England as in France minstrels were also occasionally employed in churches. But the Church did not usually look on them with favor. Some of the opposition was based merely on the objection to the use in church of other instruments than the organ; but the real animus of the clerical enmity to the minstrels is to be traced to the bounteous rewards which some of the nobles heaped on them, and which the Church would not have refused itself. Hence Johannes de Sarisberia chides them: "In histriones et hujusmodi monstra hominum ob famæ redemptionem et dilationem nominis effunditis opes vestras!" And there was some cause for these complaints of extravagance. For a performance at Westminster in 1306, for instance, each of the minstrels received from 40 to 65 shillings, at a time when workmen received a penny for a day's work. A real artistic musical activity did not prevail at an English court before Henry VIII., during whose sumptuous reign "church service in England became a concert performance," to the great scandal of the pious.

Dr. Nagel regrets that the subject of music in its best period is ignored by Green in his 'History of the English People,' and incidentally he puts in a good word for Scherr's 'History of English Literature,' which the German savants affect to look down on because it combines the unpardonable virtues of vivacity and imagination with erudition. As for our author's own style, it is, as a rule, clear enough, without being conspicuously elegant. Not infrequently he falls into the German vice of trying to cram several sentences into one, as in the following

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warning example: "Indem sich die Kirche ängstlich vor der im Volke traditionell lebenden Kunst (es ist mehr als wahrscheinlich, dass die Volksmusiker erst durch die fahrenden Kleriker eine Notenschrift kennen lernten; ihre Unkenntniss einer solchen schliesst das frühere Vorhandensein nationaler Tonschriften nicht aus) abzusperren suchte," etc.—wherein the verb is separated from the noun it ought to follow by two complete parenthetical sentences!

Essays and Criticisms. By St. George Mivart, F.R.S. Boston: Little, Brown & Co. 8vo., 2 vols., pp. 472, 461.

A BOOK like this is a valuable acquisition to the library of any thoughtful man. Few can turn its leaves without meeting something that will profitably fix their attention. Variety, comprehensiveness, and vigor make it generally attractive. In particular it will attract philosophical students, especially such as interest themselves in the literature of evolution. With depth and originality of thought, and a clear and forceful style, the author gives evidence of an amount and diversity of information that comes as a surprise to those who have made his acquaintance only through his zoological writings. Essays, reviews, and criticisms on history, politics, psychology, travel, evolution, education, origin of species or of faculties, church matters, life, growth, heredity, selection, force, energy, volition, tastes, emotions, and other topics, from various sources of original publication, make up these bulky volumes. To say that they are those of a devoted Catholic, of a conservative in regard to modern evolutionary theories, and one who holds it to be impossible that the mind of man should have developed from that of a lower vertebrate, will to some extent suggest the principal bias in discussion. A limit to the evolution of all creatures lower than mankind appears, according to this author, in a difference in kind, not in degree, that divides them from men—a something altogether new, the capacity for apprehending abstract ideas, that first appeared on earth with the coming of man. Like his opponents, Mr. Mivart cannot imagine the distinct origin of man; but, he continues, inability to imagine is no ground whatever for not believing a thing if reason supplies good evidence in its favor. That the reason-provided evidence is sometimes based on assumptions or imaginings is one of the severest criticisms to be brought against the book. An impassable gulf is asserted between the lower vertebrates and men; but, after being taught the necessity of what may be called a soul in addition to the physical existence of the living creature, and that the higher forms have been evolved from lower through variation due to internal reactions or tendencies induced by external stimuli, a reader is not satisfied arbitrarily to stop development at sense perceptions, so called, and say that advances in the direction of the self-consciousness and reason of man are impossible and inconceivable.

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